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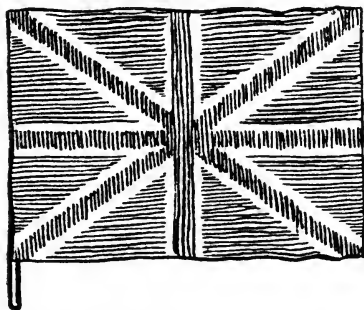
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The National Flags

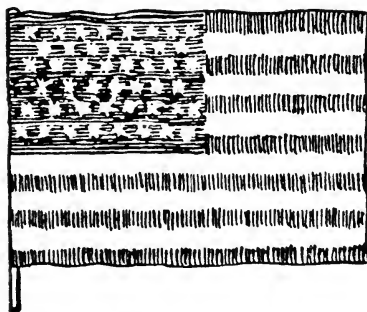
of

Great Britain and Ireland and of the United States of America.

On the outside cover of this book a clever artist has drawn a pretty design representing the floral badges of the United Kingdom. The rose to the right is the national flower of England, while Scotland is represented by the thistle, and Ireland by the shamrock.

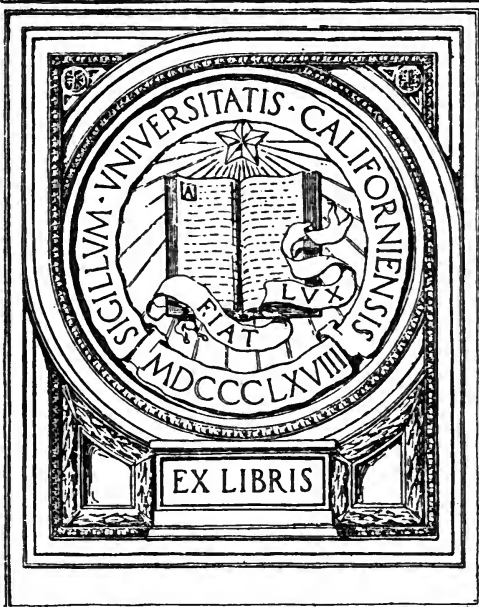


Andrew, and St. Patrick, is emblematic of the union of England, Scotland, and Ireland under one sovereign. The red rectangular cross of St. George, with its white border, occupies the chief place across the centre of the Flag; while in each of the four quarters the white cross of St. Andrew is combined with the red cross of St. Patrick, with its narrow border of white.



The Americans have adopted as their national flag the wellknown device of the stars and stripes. At the time of the Establishment of the Union (in 1776) there were thirteen states, each of which was represented on the banner by one star and one stripe. But while the latter have remained unaltered, for each new state admitted to the union, a new star has been added; so that now there are over forty stars on the blue field of the union. — A popular name for the flag of the United States is the 'Stars and Stripes'. It consists of two parts: — 1. the 'union', i. e. the blue field having white stars to represent the several states, one for each, — 2. the 'fly', composed of thirteen horizontal stripes alternately red and white.

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The English Scholar

Special Edition of

The English Student

for Beginners in the Higher Forms.

Lehrbuch zur Einführung in die englische Sprache,
Landeskunde und Geisteswelt

für die oberen Klassen höherer Lehranstalten

unter Mitwirkung von

Professor Dr. Alfred Rohs

Oberlehrer am Gymnasium zu Krefeld

herausgegeben von

Professor Dr. Emil Hausknecht

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Berlin 1910

Verlag von Wiegandt & Grieben.

Every language is a temple, in which the soul of those who speak it
is enshrined.

O. W. Holmes,

The Professor at the Breakfast Table [1859].



Boys wanted.

Boys of spirit, boys of will,
Boys of muscle, brain, and power,
Fit to cope with anything —
These are wanted every hour.

Not the weak and whining drones
That all trouble magnify,
Not the watchword of "I can't",
But the nobler one "I'll try".

Do whate'er you have to do
With a true and earnest zeal;
Bend your sinews to the task,
Put your shoulder to the wheel.

Though your duty may be hard,
Look not on it as an ill;
If it be an honest task,
Do it with an honest will.

At the anvil or the farm,
Wheresoever you may be —
From your future efforts, boys,
Comes a nation's destiny.

"The all of things is an infinite conjugation of the verb — 'To Do'."

Thomas Carlyle,

French Revolution, Bk. III., Ch. I. [1837].

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¹⁾ Wofabeln sind zunächst immer erst am Satzganzen (im Satzzusammenhange) zu lernen — erst hinterher einzeln zu wiederholen und einzuprägen.

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¹⁾ Die Grammatik soll teils als Lern-, teils als Nachschlagebuch dienen. Was der Anfänger zu einem leidlich korrekten Gebrauch der Sprache in Wort und Schrift nötig hat, ist klar und bestimmt in den den einzelnen deutschen

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Übungsstücken vorangestellten Hinweisen (Seite 285, Zeile 1—4; 286, 14—17 usw.), sowie an anderen Orten (19, 80; 21, 29; 29, 8 usw.) herausgehoben.

Ob und wie weit hierüber hinaus etwas im Unterricht besonders durchzunehmen und fest einzuprägen — oder nur gelegentlich zu besprechen und zum Nachlesen zu empfehlen ist, werden die einzelnen Anstalten nach Maßgabe der ihnen für die Grammatik zur Verfügung stehenden Zeit verschieden bestimmen.

Die Grammatik, für welche die Arbeiten von Onions und Poutsma benutzt worden sind, bringt in erster Linie die Sprache des heutigen Englisch zur Darstellung. Sie berücksichtigt aber auch — wenn auch nur in elementarer Weise — den ganzen großen Zeitraum des Neuenglischen, welchem die an deutschen Schulen übliche Schriftstellerlektüre entnommen zu werden pflegt. Welch ein Unterschied in der Sprache Shakespeares und Miltons von der des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts! und wie weicht nicht auch die Grammatik dieses letzten Zeitabschnittes ab von der des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts, in welchem wiederum die Ausdrucksweise eines Dickens, eines Thackeray, eines De Quincey den im zwanzigsten Jahrhundert Lebenden z. T. schon altmodisch zu erscheinen beginnt!

¹⁾ Über Satzumwandlungen vergleiche man — den Abschnitt „Freiere Übungen“ bei **Münch**, Didaktik und Methodik des französischen Unterrichts, 3. Auflage (München 1910), S. 76—79 — **Hausknecht** in den „Jahresberichten über das höhere Schulwesen“ von C. Rethwisch, XXIII. Jahrgang, 1908, Abschnitt „Französisch und Englisch“, S. 1 und 4 — den Aufsatz von **Ubeck** in den Verhandlungen der 8. Direktorenversammlung in der Rheinprovinz — die Ausführungen von **Baar** in der „Zeitschrift für lateinlose höhere Schulen“, 1908, XIX, S. 115 und S. 230 — und die Abhandlung von **Huendgen** in den Hallischen „Lehrgängen und Lehrproben“, 1908, 95. Heft, S. 45. — Unter dem Gesichtspunkte der Erlangung von Sprechfertigkeit und der schnellen Spracherlernung bespricht die Bedeutung der Variation und Evolution of Sentences Thomas **Prendergast** in seinem Büchlehen „Handbook to the Mastery Series“, London (Longmans, Green, and Co.), 8th Edition, 1893.

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In der Mappe des hinteren Einbanddeckels besonders geheftet:

Vocabulary zu den Sketches 1 — Marks of Punctuation, &c., 24 — Sacherklärungen, phraseologische und grammatische Zusammenstellungen zur Wiederholung nach Durchnahme von Composition I — VI 25 — Zur weiteren Wiederholung 40 — **Alphabetical Glossary** 49.

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l und ł.

Die auf Seite 177 (Ende von § 2) gegebene Erklärung der beiden l im Englischen wird deutlicher durch folgende etwas ausführlichere Fassung:

l vor Vokalen (laugh, sleeping, calling, nobler, noblest) ist dental (Zahnlaut-), genauer: alveolar (Zahndamm-): die Lautbildungsstelle liegt an der Vorderzunge. — ł als Schlußlaut (call, noble, people) und vor Konsonanten (milk, salt) ist Gaumenlaut: die Zungen Spitze berührt — nicht den Zahndamm vorn im Munde, sondern weiter zurück im Munde — den Vorbergaumen¹⁾: die Lautbildungsstelle liegt, da die Hinterzunge sich gleichzeitig nach dem Hintergaumen zu etwas hebt, am Hintergaumen.

Erklärung. Alveolar: die Alveole = Zahnhöhle (engl. meist dafür: the [upper] gums Zahnfleisch, Zahndamm) — palatal: der eigentliche Gaumen, the palate proper oder the hard palate harter Gaumen — guttural oder besser velar: velum palatinum Gaumensegel, weicher Gaumen, soft palate, Hintergaumen.

¹⁾ Genauer: den gefurchten Gaumen (the rough palate, le palais rugueux), d. i. den vorderen Teil des harten Gaumens (dessen beide Teile der Genfer Phonetiker Georges Thudichum als le palais rugueux und la voûte du palais unterscheidet). Wenn Daniel Jones (auf Seite 22, Fußnote, seines Buches The Pronunciation of English, Cambridge 1909) in diesem Zusammenhange von the back part of the gums, dem hinteren Teile des Zahnfleisches spricht, so meint er wahrscheinlich dasselbe).

The English Scholar (Spec. Ed. of the English Student for Beginners in the Higher Forms). 1

Die englische Schreibschrift ist der im Deutschen üblichen sogenannten lateinischen Schreibschrift ähnlich. Besonders häufige Abweichungen sind:

I = *I* J = *J* T = *T* und *T* F = *F*, *F* und *F*
 4 *F* P = *P* Q = *Q* r = *r* Z = *Z* z = *z*.

Beim Schreiben der Ziffern wird der letzte Grundstrich der 7 niemals durchstrichen.

Speak the following sentences slowly. *spɪk ðə fɒləʊɪŋ sentənsɪz sləʊli.*

8 Sprich die folgenden Sätze langsam.

Ten Proverbs. — What is a proverb? *Ten prəʊvɜːbz. hʊt ɪz ə prəʊvɜːb?*
 A proverb is the wisdom of many, and *ə prəʊvɜːb ɪz ðə ˈwɪzdəm ɒv menɪ,*
 the wit of one. *ən ðə ˈwɪt ɒv wʌn.*

12 Zehn Sprichwörter. Was ist ein Spr.? . . die Weisheit von vielen, und der Witz (geistvolle Ausdruck) von einem (Einzelnen).

1. Well begun is half done *uel̩ bɪɡʌn ɪz hæf dʌn.*

2. Make hay while the sun shines. *meɪk heɪ huːn̩ ðə sʌn ʃaɪnz.*

16 3. The sleeping fox catches no poultry. *ðə slɪpɪŋ fɒks kætʃɪz nəʊ ˈpəʊltəri.*

4. A friend in need is a friend indeed. *ə frend ɪn niːd ɪz ə frend ɪnˈdiːd.*

5. They laugh best who laugh last. *ðeɪ lɑːf best hu lɑːf lɑːst.*

6. Practice makes perfect. [a way. *præktɪs meɪks pɜːfekt.*

20 7. Where there is a will, there is *hʊər ðeɪrɪz ə ˈwɪl, ðeɪrɪz ə ˈwɪl.*

8. Business before pleasure. *bɪznɪs bɪfɔːr ˈpleʒər.*

9. A mother's heart never grows old. *ə ˈmʌðəz hɑːt neːvə grəʊz ɒld.*

10. The end crowns the work. *ði end kraʊnz ðə ˈwɜːk.*

24 1. Wohl begonnen ist halb getan. — 2. Mach' Heu [derweilen =] während die Sonne scheint. — 3. Der schlafende Fuchs fängt [sein Geflügel =] keine Hühner. —

4. Ein Freund in der Not ist in der Tat ein Freund. — 5. [Sie =] Diejenigen lachen (am) besten, welche lachen (zu)lest. — 6. Praxis macht vollkommen = Übung

28 macht den Meister. — 7. Wo da ist ein Wille, da ist ein Weg. — 8. Geschäft vor Vergnügen. — 9. Einer Mutter Herz niemals wächst (= wird) alt. — 10. Das Ende krönt das Werk.

Three Aphorisms. Drei Denkprüche. *θri æˈfɒrɪzəmz.* An aphorism.

32 1. Everything comes to him who *evriθɪŋ kʌmz tu him hu kæn ʊt̩.*
 can wait.

2. Nothing is hard to a willing mind. *nʌθɪŋ ɪz hɑːd tə ˈwɪlɪŋ maɪnd.*

3. To whom much is given, of him *tə huːm mʌtʃ ɪz ɡɪvən, ɒv him mʌtʃ ʃʌt*

36 much shall be required. *bɪ rɪkʊəɪd.*

1. (Jedes Ding =) alles kommt zu ihm, welcher kann warten. — 2. Nichts ist hart einem willigen Geiste. — 3. Welchem (Wem) viel ist gegeben, von ihm viel soll gefordert [sein =] werden.

Two quotations. Zwei Zitate. *tū kȳoutē'snz.*

1. The child is the father of the man. William Wordsworth. *ð̥ t̥ʃɑ:ld ɪz ð̥ fɑ:ðr ov ð̥ mæn. ȳiləm ȳɔ:dzwɜ:ʃ (1770—1850).*
2. Men are but children of a larger growth. John Dryden. *mæn ɑ: bʊt t̥ʃɪldrən ov ə lɑ:dʒər grəʊθ. dʒən drɑ:dən (1631—1700).*

1. Das Kind ist der Vater des Mannes. — 2. Männer sind nur Kinder eines größeren Wachstums.

One Thing at a Time.

8

Work while you work, play while you play,
That is the way to be cheerful and gay.
All that you do, do with your might;
Things done by halves are never done right.

12

One thing each time, and that one done well,
Is a very good rule, as many can tell.
Moments are useless trifled away;
So work while you work, and play while you play.

16

one	ein (Zahl=	ȳvən	with	mit	ȳid	
	wort)		your	dein, euer	jūr	
thing	Ding	pɪŋ	might	Macht	mɑ:t	
at a time	auf einmal	ætətɑ:m	things	Dinge	pɪŋz	20
at	an	æt	by halves	[bei Hälften]	bai hævz	
a	ein (unbest.	ē		halb, obenhin		
	Art.)		are	sind	ɑ:r	
time	Zeit	tāim	never	nie	nevər	24
work	arbeite, ar=	ȳɔ:rk	right	recht, richtig	rɑ:t	
	beitet		each	jede	ɪʃ	
you work	du arbeitest, ju	ȳɔ:rk	very	sehr	verɪ	
	ihr arbeitet		good	gut	gʊd	28
play	spiele, spielet	plē	rule	Regel	rul	
that	daß	dæt	as	wie	æz	
way	Weg	ȳē	many	viele	meni	
to be	zu sein	t̥ b̥i	can	können	kæn	32
cheerful	heiter	t̥ʃɪrfʊt	tell	erzählen,	tet	
and	und	ænd, ən		jagen		
gay	fröhlich,	gē	moments	Augenblicke	mōumnts	
	munter		useless	nutzlos	jʊsls	36
all	alles	āl	trifled away	vertändelt	trāift̥d æȳē	
you do	du tust, ihr	ju dū	trifle	tändeln	trāift̥	
	tut		away	weg	æȳē	
do	tue, tuet	dū	so	so	sōu	40

Zusammenfassung. A. Lautliches.

Bezeichnung der Laute		Beispiele, hauptsächlich aus betonten Silben.		
in der Laut- schrift	in der englischen Ortho- graphie			
4	i	in, is, thing, things, him, given, children, will, willing, William, with, wit, wisdom.		
	e	England, English.		
	u	business		
	ī	e	to be, und im Namen der Buchstaben b, c, d, e, g, p, t, v.	Der Laut ī hat im Englischen etwas Diphthongisches; manche Phonetiker bezeichnen daher diesen Doppellaut durch ein Doppelzeichen, durch ī' oder īj.
8	ee	beef, speech, sleeping, need, indeed,		
	ea	speak, each. [three.]		
12	e	e	gentleman, America, well, best, end, never, every, men und im Namen der Buchstaben f, l, m, n, s, x, z.	
	ēi	a	In friend ist das i stumm.	
		ea	many.	
		a	pleasure.	
	16	ai	a	lady, make, makes, quotation a (der unbestimmte Artikel; selten so gesprochen: nur wenn er starkbetont ist oder als selbstständiges Wort steht); im Namen der Buchstaben a, h, j, k.
			ay	wait
			ea	tramway, hay, play, gay, way, away.
			ey	beefsteak.
	20	æ	a	they.
			a	tramway, Southampton, Yankee, catches, practice, man, aphorism, shall, at, can, that, and, an.
			a	Mary. (Im Englischen viel offener als offenes deutsches äh.)
	24	ə	Dieser Laut kommt nur in unbetonten Silben vor: England, gentleman, William, children, wisdom u. a.	
28		and 'und' wird gesprochen:		
		1. and (vollbetont als selbstständiges Wort für sich);		
		2. im flüchtigen Zusammenfluß des Satzes lautet es and vor Vokalen, an vor Konsonanten, manchmal jedoch einfach n.		
32	o	u	plum-(pudding), humbug, sun, begun, much, but und im Namen des Buchstaben w.	[Nicht wie deutsches ö in 'Götter', sondern beinahe wie a in 'glatt'.]
		o	done, one, mother, comes, nothing.	
	ā	a	Newcastle, last, half, halves, father.	
		au	laugh.	
36	āi	i	strike, while, shines, child, time, might, right, trifled und im Namen des Buchstaben i.	
		y	Dryden und im Namen des Buchstaben y.	
	āu	ow	clown, crowns.	{ [Der erste Bestandteil dieses englischen Doppellautes ist je h r offen.]
40				

Sautliches (Fortsetzung).

Bezeichnung der Laute		Beispiele, hauptsächlich aus betonten Silben.	
in der Laut- schrift	in der englischen Ortho- graphie		
u	u	Bull, pudding.	
	oo	good.	
ü	u	rule;	
		mit Vorschlag von j: Stuart, useless	Der Laut ü hat im Englischen etwas Diphthongisches; manche Phonetiker bezeichnen daher diesen Doppellaut durch ein Doppelzeichen, durch ü ¹⁶ 4
	ou	und im Namen der Buchstaben u, q, w. you.	
	o	do, who, whom.	
	oo	waterproof, fireproof.	
ö	o	spoken, no, moments, so, old und im Namen des Buchstabens o.	
	oa	roastbeef.	
	ou	poultry.	
	ow	grows, growth, slowly	12
ɔ	o	fox, Connaught, John, proverb, following	über-offenes, a-ähnliches o: beinahe wie a in 'tapfer'; [nicht wie o in 'Topf'].
	a	what	
ɔ̄	a	all, waterproof.	16
	au	Connaught.	
	o	Victoria.	
	aw	shawl.	
ɔ̄	oy	Lloyd. { [Der erste Bestandteil dieses englischen Doppellautes (Diphthongen) ist sehr offen.]	20

Die Laute l und t, r und r.

Es gibt im Englischen zwei verschiedene l; beide weichen vom deutschen l ab: 24

1. l, das Vorderzungen-l (vor Vokalen): lord, lady, clown, Lloyd, sleeping, laugh, last, play, useless u. a.
2. t, das [mehr mit Hebung der Hinterzunge gesprochene] Hintergaumen-l (als Schlußlaut und vor Konsonanten): Bull, gentleman, shawl, Newcastle, 28
der Name des Buchstabens l, well, while, will, poultry, cheerful, all, rule, tell, trifled u. a.

Es gibt im Englischen zwei verschiedene r; beide weichen vom deutschen r ab:

1. r, das konsonantische Zungen spitzen-r (vor Vokallauten): roastbeef, tram- 32
way, waterproof, fireproof, strike, Mary, America, proverbs, poultry, friend, practice, crowns, very, trifled, rule u. a.
2. r, das vokalische gutturale Röpfchen-r (vor Konsonanten, vor stummem e, am Ende eines Wortes). Dieses Röpfchen-r wurde früher allgemein ge- 36
sprochen; heute ist es in der Aussprache der überwiegenden Mehrzahl der

Gebildeten fast ganz verstummt; es wird nur angefügt, geht dann aber in den offenen unbestimmten Vokallaut *ə*¹⁾ über: lord, waterproof, fireproof, Stuart, where, there, here, cheerful, work, your, never, proverbs, are, und im Namen des Buchstabens *r*.

Aber beim schnellen Zusammensprechen der Wörter wird dieses ursprüngliche Zäpfchen=*r* in der Bindung vor dem folgenden Vokal wieder gesprochen, und zwar als Zungen spitzen=*r*: there is 2, 20; father of 3, 2.

Der Übergang dieses ursprünglich konsonantischen Zäpfchen=*r*s in einen Vokal hat mehrere dem jetzigen Englisch eigentümliche Vokale hervorgebracht; von diesen sind bisher vorgekommen:

ɪr: here, cheerful.

ɛr: where, there [im Englischen sehr offener Laut].

ɔr: in betonten Silben in work, perfect, Wordsworth, in unbetonten Silben (= *or*) in waterproof (wasserbicht), Stuart, never, pleasure, father, mother, larger, letters, proverbs.

ɑr: are, heart, hard, larger und im Namen des Buchstabens *r*.

ɑɪr: fireproof (feuerfester), required.

ʊr: your.

ɔr: lord, before.

20 Stimmhafte und stimmlose Laute. (Voiced and voiceless sounds.)

Stimmhaft sind alle Vokale, die eintönigen wie die zweitonigen (die Diphthonge).

Stimmlos sind die harten Konsonanten *p, t, k, f, ʃ, s* (deutsch *p, t, k, f, s*), *ʒ* (deutsch *sch*).

Stimmlos ist auch *h*, das im Englischen meist schwächer ist als im Deutschen.

Stimmhaft sind die sogenannten weichen Konsonanten *b, d, g, v, ɹ, z* (wie lang gesummes, sehr weiches deutsches *f*), *ʒ* (wie *ʒ* in *Journal*; siehe S. 8, 12).

Stimmhaft sind auch die beiden *l*, die beiden *r*, sowie *ɹ* und *j*.

Halbvokalische Konsonanten: *ɥ* (ein u-ähnlicher Laut) und *j* (eine Art

28 **ʒot-Laut** mit leisem Anklang an *i*) werden oft als **Halbvokale** bezeichnet.

Der i-ähnliche (halb vokalische, halb konsonantische) englische ʒot-Laut *j* bleibt stets soweit vokalisch, daß *h* davor gehört werden kann: Hume (englischer Historiker 1711—1776) spricht *hwām*. — Nicht geschrieben, wohl aber gesprochen wird der

32 Halbvokal *ɥ* im Anlaut der Wörter *one* (*ɥn*) ein und *once* (*ɥns*) einmal. —

¹⁾ Ebenfalls durch ein besonderes Zeichen — durch umgekehrtes *r* (*ɹ*) — bezeichnet diesen Laut das große (in Verbindung mit zahlreichen Sprachforschern von Sir James A. H. Murray, H. Bradley und W. A. Craigie bearbeitete) Wörterbuch der Londoner Philologischen Gesellschaft, das nach dem Herstellungs- und Druckorte The Oxford English Dictionary genannt wird. Es ist ein monumentales Schriftwerk, ein großartiges Seitenstück zu den französischen Wörterbüchern von Littré und Larousse sowie zu dem herrlichen großen deutschen Wörterbuche von Grimm. Es erscheint zu Oxford (in der Clarendon Press) seit 1884, ist aber zurzeit noch nicht vollendet.

Neben w steht die häufige feste Lautverbindung hw (geschrieben *wh*), die stimmlose Form zu dem stimmhaften Laute w ; siehe 8, 4.

Die nasalen Konsonanten *n, m, ŋ* sind ebenfalls stimmhaft.

Vier Zischlaute: *s, š, z, ž*. Von den vier Zischlauten sind zwei (*s* und *š*) 4 stimmlos, zwei (*z* und *ž*) stimmhaft (sie sind im Englischen ganz besonders weich). Dazu kommen noch die zwei sehr häufigen festen Lautverbindungen *tš* (stimmlos) und *dž* (stimmhaft; sehr weich).

Die stimmhaften Konsonanten im Auslaut: Während im Deutschen 8 Wörter wie *Kalb*, *Hund* wie *kalp*, *hunt* und (in Norddeutschland) *Gesang* meist wie *gʒank*, also mit stimmlosem (hartem) Endkonsonanten gesprochen werden, **bleiben im Englischen** die stimmhaften (weichen) Konsonanten **auch im Aus-** 12 **laut** und am Ende der Silben **stimmhaft** (sehr weich); sie werden im Auslaut 12 lang gesprochen. Also auch *l, n, m, v* werden im Auslaut bestimmter und kräftiger als im Deutschen gesprochen.

Auch ein vor stimmhaftem (weichem) Endkonsonanten stehender betonter kurzer Vokallaut wird — ebenso wie ein zwischen beiden stehender Konsonant — etwas 16 länger angehalten (*lengthened out* gedehnt): *man, men, can, good, shall, begun, done, one, friend, end* (letzte beiden mit langem *n* und langem *d*).

Unterscheide demnach: *cap Mütze* (mit kurzem *æ* und kurzem stimmlosen *p*) von *cab Droschke* (mit gedehntem kurzen *æ* und lang ausstönendem *b*); — 20 *pence Pfennige* (mit kurzem *e*, kurzem *n*, kurzem stimmlosen *s*) von *pens Federn* (mit gedehntem kurzen offenen *e*, langem *n* und lang ausstönendem stimmhaften *z*).

Wiederhole *d* in: *England, lord, Lloyd, zed, need, indeed, end, good, mind, child, hard, old*; — *g* in: *humbug*; — *m* in: *him, whom*; — 24 *n* in: *begun, done, one, sun, John, can, man, men*; — *v*: (ausnahmsweise / geschrieben in der Präposition) *of* ('von').

Zusammenfassung B: Schreibung (Orthographisches).

Man unterscheide Buchstabe (Schriftzeichen) und Laut (Aussprache). 28

Die englische Buchstabenverbindung *ch* lautet (wird ausgesprochen) meist wie *tš* (d. h. wie *tšch* in 'Rutsche'): *speech, each, cheerful, catches, much*.

sh lautet wie *š* (d. h. etwa wie *šč* im norddeutschen [nicht wie im westfälischen] 'Schinken'): *shawl, English*. 32

th lautet 1. wie stimmloses *þ* (hart; *þ* ist deutlich zu unterscheiden von *s* oder *d* oder *t*): *things, three, Southampton, growth*;

2. wie stimmhaftes *d* (weich; *d* ist deutlich zu unterscheiden von *z, d, þ*): *they, the, that, there, mother, father, with*. 36

w lautet vor Vokalen wie w [d. h. wie ein vokalischer u-ähnlicher Laut; 40
englisches *w* (*dobbu*) wird (nicht mit Zähnen und Lippen, wie nord-

deutsches w, sondern) nur zwischen den Lippen gesprochen; englisches w ist bilabial, d. i. reiner Lippenlaut, norddeutsches w ist labiodental (Zahnlippenlaut): waterproof, tramway, work, way, away, well, with, William, Wordsworth; siehe 6, 27. — wh lautet wie h², d. h. wie h mit sich daran anschließendem, halb vokalischem, halb konsonantischem u. Dieses h, welches in der guten Aussprache sorgsam sprechender Engländer durchaus noch (wenn auch schwach) hörbar ist, fängt an, im Süden Englands zu schwinden: while, where.

Merke: in dem Worte who ist w stumm; siehe 11, 29.

v lautet ähnlich wie norddeutsches (recht weich und langgesprochenes) w in 'werden': Victoria, halves und im Namen des Buchstabens v.

j lautet wie d^z (d. h. wie J im französischen [nicht wie im thüringischen] Journal, dem noch ein sehr deutliches d vorgeschlagen ist): John und im Namen des Buchstabens j;

g lautet wie d^z in französischen Wörtern: larger, gentleman und im Namen des Buchstabens g. — g lautet wie g in germanischen Wörtern: begun, given. — Auslautendes ing lautet wie in iŋ (d. h. ohne den in Norddeutschland meist üblichen R-Nachklang im Worte Gesangbuch 7,10): pudding, sleeping, thing, things.

y lautet wie j (d. h. etwa wie deutsches j in 'ja', aber mit geringerer Reibung und mehr wie i; siehe 6, 27): Yankee, you, your.

Zusammenfassung C: Grammatisches.

s ist die Endung

a) der 3. Person Singular des Präsens Indikativ der Verben,
b) des Plurals der Substantive.

Dieses s lautet: — beim Verbum wie beim Substantiv —

stimmlos wie s (wie deutsches scharfes ſ) nach stimmlosem (hartem)

Konsonanten: makes, — moments

stimmhaft wie z (d. h. wie sehr weiches, gesummes, lang austönendes j) nach stimmhaftem Baute: shines, crowns, comes, grows, is — things, halves, proverbs, letters.

Nach einem Zischlaut (7, 4—7) erweitert sich diese Endung zur vollen Silbe *iz* (geschrieben es): catches fängt, sentences Sätze.

Das **Partizip des Präsens** endet auf **-ing** (gesprochen iŋ ohne R-Nachklang): sleeping, following.

Das **Partizip des Perfekts** endet bei den schwachen Verben auf **ed**; trifled, required. — Beispiele von Partizipien starker Verben sind: spoken gesprochen (to speak sprechen) — begun begonnen (to begin beginnen) — done getan (to do tun) — given gegeben (to give geben).

Präsensformen: is ist, are sind (to be sein), can kann, shall soll;
 shines scheint, crowns krönt, catches fängt, grows wächst
 you work du arbeitest, ihr arbeitet, Sie arbeiten; you play du
 spielst usw.; you do du tust usw.;
 do you speak (tust du sprechen =) sprichst du? (tut ihr sprechen =)
 sprecht ihr? (tun Sie sprechen =) sprechen Sie?
 they laugh sie lachen; many can tell viele können (erzählen) sagen.

Imperativ: speak sprich, sprecht, sprechen Sie; work arbeite, play spiele. 8

Der bestimmte Artikel ist the; er lautet

the alleinstehend oder nachdrücklich betont.

Angelehnt an sein Substantiv lautet er

a vor einem Vokal: the English alphabet, the end, 12

a vor einem Konsonanten oder Halbvokal: the sun, the sleeping fox,
 the way.

Der unbestimmte Artikel ist a, vor Vokalen an. Er lautet: — als besonderes Wort (allein für sich gesprochen) *əi*, *ən*; — vor seinem Substantiv, an das er sich anlehnt, ganz flüchtig *ə* oder *ə*, *ən* oder *ən*: a friend, a will, an aphorism. 16

Leseübung. Reading Exercise, *riˈdɪŋ ɛˈksɜːsaɪz*.

Great Britain and Ireland, *ɡreɪt brɪtən ən ɑɪərlənd*. London on the Thames, *lɒndən ɒnd təmz*. London Bridge, *lɒndənbrɪdʒ*. Greenwich, 20
 Windsor, Reading, Oxford on the Thames, *ɡrɪnɪdʒ, ɹɪnzər, rɛˈdɪŋ, ɒksfɜːd*.
 Cambridge, *kæmbrɪdʒ*. Leicester, *lestər*. Gloucester, *ɡlɒstər*. Lancaster,
læŋkəstər. Manchester, *mæˈnɪʃtər*. Sheffield, *ʃeˈfɪld*.

Liverpool on the Mersey, *lɪˈvərpuːl, mɜːzi*. Hull on the Humber, the 24
 Ouse, *hʊl, hʊmbər, əz*. — Dover, Canterbury, and Folkestone in Kent,
dʊvər, kænˈtərberi, fəʊkstn, kent. Brighton and Hastings in Sussex, *brʌɪtn,*
hæɪstɪŋz, sʌsɪks. Harwich in Essex, *hæriːdʒ, ɛsɪks*. Norwich in Norfolk, *nɔːrɪdʒ,*
nɔːfɪk. Plymouth in Devonshire, *plɪmʊp, devnʃər*. Landsend in Cornwall, 28
lændzənd, kɔːnɪt. Warwick in England, *ˈwɜːrɪk*. — Cheviot, *tʃeˈviət*.

Snowdon in Wales, *snəʊdn, ɹeɪtʃ*. Cardiff, Swansea, *kɑːdɪf, swənzi*.

The Isle of Man in the Irish Sea, *ail ɒv mæn, ɑɪrɪʃ si*. The Isle of
 Wight in the English Channel, *ɹaɪt, tʃænəl*. The Dogger Bank in the 32
 German Ocean (in the North Sea), *dɒɡərbæŋk dʒɜːrmən ɒʊʃn (nɔːrθ si)*.

Berwick in Scotland, *berɪk, skɒtlənd*. Edinburgh and Leith on the
 Firth of Forth, *ɛˈdɪnbərə, lɪp, fɔːp, fɔːp*. Glasgow on the Clyde, *ɡlæːzɡo,*
klɑɪd. — Aberdeen, Dundee, Inverness, Perth, *əˈbɜːdɪn, dʊndi, ɪnvərˈnes,* 36
pɔːp. — Ben Nevis, *benˈneːvɪs*.

Dublin in Ireland, *dʊblɪn*. Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Connaught,
ʊlˈstər, lenˈstər, mʊnˈstər, kɔːnɔt. Cork, Belfast, *kɔːk, beˈlɪfəst*. The Shannon, *ʃænən*.

New York, Washington, and Chicago in North America, *jōrk*, *ŋōš'ŋtŋ*, *š'kō'go*, *nōrp*. Newfoundland in the Atlantic, *nja'fəndlənd* (*nja'fəu'ndlənd*), *štlə'nt'ik*.

- 4 Sydney in New South Wales, Australia, *sidn'i*, *sāu'p*, *ōstrē'liā*. Auckland in New Zealand, *ōklənd*, *ə'lənd*. The Pacific Ocean, *pə'si'fik*.

- Shakespeare, *šē'kspiər*. Lord Byron, *bā'ɪrən*. Charles Dickens, *tšārtz dik'ɪnz*. Boz, *bōz*. Macaulay, *mākō'lē*. Salisbury, *sōltz'bēr'i*. Gladstone, *glæd'stən*. — Macbeth, *mākbe'p*. John Knox, *nɔks*. Walter Scott, *ŋōt'ər skɔt*. — Benjamin Franklin, *bə'ndʒəm'ɪn fræŋkl'ɪn*. Oliver Wendell Holmes, *ŋ'livər ŋend' hōumz*.

Berlin in Prussia, in Germany, *bərli'n*, *prnšā*, *dʒərməni*.

- 12 January, February, March, *dʒə'njuəri*, *fə'bruəri*, *mārtš*,
April, May, June, *ər'prɪl*, *mēi*, *dʒʌn*,
July, August, September, *dʒʌlāi*, *ɔ'gʊst*, *sɛptə'mbər*,
October, November, December. *ɔktō'bər*, *nɒvə'mbər*, *dɪsə'mbər*.

- 16 Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, *mɒ'ndi*, *tʃʌzdi*, *ŋe'nzdi*,
Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday. *θɜ'rzdɪ*, *frā'di*, *sæ'tɜr'di*, *sʊ'ndi*.

- One two, three, four, five, *ŋʌn*, *tʌ*, *θri*, *fɔr*, *fāiv*,
six, seven, eight, nine, ten, *siks*, *sevn*, *eɪt*, *nāin*, *ten*,
20 eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, *elevn*, *tʃetv*, *θɜrti'n*, *fɔrti'n*,
fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, *fifti'n*, *siksti'n*, *sevnti'n*, *ēti'n*,
nineteen, twenty. *nāinti'n*, *tʃe'nti*.

Wiederholung einiger wichtiger Vokallaute (Vowel Sounds).

- 24 Suche, ordne nach der Schreibung und wiederhole, laut und langsam sprechend,
Beispiele, in denen — Seite 9, 18 bis 10, 22 — die Laute *ēi*, *i*, *āi*, *ōu*, *ɪr*, *ɪr*, *ār*,
ūr, *ɔr*, *ɔ*, *ō*, *ʌ*, *e*, *æ* in betonter Silbe vorgekommen find.

Konsonanten (Consonants).

- 28 Wiederhole (laut und langsam sprechend) und buchstabiere (die einzelnen Buchstaben mit ihrem englischen Namen bezeichnend) die Wörter der folgenden Übersicht:

laut s	anlautend (the sound <i>s</i> at the beginning of a word; the sound <i>s</i> initially): sun, so, Sussex, south, Southampton, Salisbury, six, seven, Swansea, sea.
32	inlautend (the sound <i>s</i> in the interior of a word; the sound <i>s</i> medially): Leicester, Gloucester, Essex, Sussex, Pacific (<i>pə'si'fik</i>).
	auslautend (the sound <i>s</i> at the end of a word; the sound <i>s</i> finally): makes, moments, Essex, Sussex, Inverness, s.
36	" z
	z, Zealand; — Mersey, Windsor, Swansea, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Salisbury; — shines, is, crowns, things, Thames, Hastings, Leeds, Ouse, Wales, Charles, Dickens, Holmes.

Laut <i>š</i>	shawl, Sheffield, Shannon, Chicago; — Washington; — English.	
" <i>ž</i>	pleasure; siehe 6, 25.	
" <i>tš</i>	cheerful, Charles, Cheviot, channel, child, children; — catches, Manchester; — speech, each, March, much.	4
" <i>dž</i>	John, g, j, Germany, January, June, July; — London Bridge, Cambridge, Greenwich, Norwich, Harwich; siehe 8, 12.	
Laut <i>þ</i>	thing, things, three; — Southampton, nothing, everything; — Plymouth, firth, Forth, Leith, Perth, south, north, Macbeth.	8
" <i>ð</i>	there, the, they, that; — mother, father; — with.	
Laut <i>ŵ</i>	waterproof, will, Windsor, Wight, Wales, way, Wordsworth, William, willing; — twelve, twenty.	
" <i>v</i>	Victoria, v; — halves (Plural von half), Liverpool, seven, eleven; — five, twelve, of.	12

In welchen Wörtern sind bisher im Auslaut (7, 8) vorgekommen die Laute *m, n, d, g*? — ferner im Anlaut *b, p, d, t*?

Verstummte Buchstaben (Mute or silent letters; letters which are not pronounced) weist die englische Orthographie in ziemlicher Menge auf. Sie sind überbleibsel früherer Zeiten, in denen die meisten ihre Berechtigung hatten, weil sie gesprochen wurden. Bisher sind vorgekommen:

stummes *e* in while, shines, Folkestone, Gladstone, Thames, strike u. a. 20

" *h* " Thames,

" *t* " Newcastle (also auch in castle = Schloß),

" *i* " friend,

" *l* " half, halves, Norfolk, Folkestone, Holmes, 24

" *ce* " Gloucester, Leicester,

" *gh* " Connaught, eight, eighteen, Wight, Brighton, might, right,

" *s* " isle, island,

" *w* " two, who, Greenwich, Norwich, Berwick, Warwick. 28

Merke: *w* ist stumm vor *ho*: who, whom.

w ist stumm in der Verbindung *wr*: to wring, sprich *rin*, 'wringen'.

w ist meist stumm in den Ortsnamen auf *-wich* und *-wick*: Greenwich in Kent, 4 engl. Meilen von London Bridge (9, 20); — Harwich Hafenstadt in Essex: die Dampferlinie zwischen Harwich und Hook of Holland (*huk v holnd*, *hoef van holland*) wird auch von Deutschen viel benutzt. — Norwich (9, 27), Berwick (9, 24), Warwick (9, 29).

l ist stumm vor *f*: half, 36

l " " *k*: Folkestone (9, 25), Norfolk (9, 27),

l " " *m*: Oliver Wendell Holmes (10, 10), amerikanischer Romanschriftsteller und Dichter (1809 bis 1894); psalm (*sām*) Psalm.

k ist immer stumm in der Verbindung kn im Anlaut: *knife* (*nāf*),
 Messer — John Knox *nəks* schottischer Reformator (1505—1572).

p ist stumm in griechischen Wörtern im Anlaute vor n, s, t:

- 4 *pneumatic* (*njāmə'tik*), Luftreifen am Fahrrad — *psalm* (*sām*) Psalm;
pseudonym (*sjūd'nim*) falscher (angenommener) Name; *psychology*
 (*sā'kol'ɔdʒi*) Seelenlehre; — *Ptolemy* (*t'ɔlmi*) Ptolemäus.

- Unbetonte Vokale (unstressed or unaccented vowels). Die Vokale
 8 der unbetonten Silben sind Abschwächungen (Absufungen) der betonten Vokale. Im
 schnellen Redefluß (beim schnellen Zusammensprechen der Wörter im Satzzusammen-
 hange) werden einige Wörter zuweilen weniger voll ausgesprochen, als wenn sie
 allein stünden oder betont wären. Innerhalb eines Wortes erscheinen die un-
 12 betonten Silben nicht alle ganz gleichmäßig tief abgeschwächt; oft tritt die eine
 etwas stärker hervor als die anderen. Je nachdem die nicht den Hauptton tragenden
 Silben mehr oder minder schwach betont sind, sind sie in der Laut-Umschrift (the
 phonetic transcription) dieses Buches durch schwächere (hochgerückte, manchmal noch
 16 mit dem Zeichen der Kürze versehene) oder vollere Lettern gedruckt.

Außerdem dienen der lautlichen Darstellung der Vokale in unbetonten Silben
 folgende drei Zeichen: ə, ʌ, o.

- ə ist ein sehr verflüchtigter offener ɔ-Laut (ɔ ohne jegliche Lippenrundung). Zu
 20 diesem unbestimmten Laute sind auch in der sorgsamsten Aussprache der Gebildeten die
 unbetonten Vokale einzelner Wörter abgeschwächt, z. B. in *gentleman*, *England*,
William, *children* (3, 4) — *waistcoat* (*ʒeskət*), *cupboard* (*kʌ'bɔrd*), *break-*
fast (*brekfəst*), *Christmas* (*krisməs*), *literature* (*li'trətʃər*) — *adopt* (*ədɔpt*),
 24 *acquit* (*əkʒɪt*), *emerge* (*əmɜrdʒ*) usw. Einen weiteren Umfang hat dieser Laut
 in der nachlässigen Sprechweise der Ungebildeten und gelegentlich auch (nicht immer)
 in der zwanglosen Unterhaltung besserer Kreise.

- ʌ ist der Auslaut von Wörtern wie *idea*, *drama*, *area*, *America*,
 28 *Prussia*, *India*, *China*, *Philadelphia*, *Ada*, *Messiah*, *hallelujah* (*alleluia*).

- o ist der Auslaut von Wörtern wie *follow*, *yellow* gelb, *window* Fenster,
arrow Pfeil, *Cicero* (*sɪ'srɔ*), *Pharaoh* (*fɛ'ro*), *bureau* (*bɪ'ʊrɔ*); doch haben
 diese Wörter bei langsamer, diktatmäßig die einzelnen Silben heraushebender Aus-
 32 sprache statt o volles diphthongisches ɔʊ.

- Die Bindung vor Vokalen. Wer die Wortgruppen wie *'anders*
 und *Baldri an*, *be'obachten* und *Se o* u. a. aufmerksam ausspricht, findet, daß
 bei den mit ' (dem Zeichen des griechischen spiritus lenis) versehenen Vokalen im
 36 Deutschen die Stimme neu einsetzt. Dieser Stimmansatz, mit dem im Deutschen
 jeder betonte anlautende Vokal gesprochen wird, fehlt im Englischen. Das Englische
 verbindet angrenzende Vokale durch eine Art Hinübergleiten der Stimme. Ähnlich
 wie im Französischen findet im Englischen bei zusammengehörigen Wörtern auch
 40 nach Konsonanten Bindung statt. In den Verbindungen *das 'Ende*, *die 'Enden*
 sprechen wir im Deutschen den anlautenden Vokal mit Stimmansatz; aber im Eng-
 lischen spricht man mit Bindung (ohne Stimmansatz)

ð'end krəʊnz ðə ʒɜrk = the end crowns the work.

Sprech langsam mit Bindung (ohne Stimmansatz) und lerne:

<i>ai æm</i>	ich bin	I am	
<i>jū ār</i>	du bist, Sie sind	you are	
<i>hē iz</i>	er ist	he is	4
<i>šē iz</i>	sie ist	she is	
<i>it iz</i>	es ist	it is	
<i>ū ār</i>	wir sind	we are	
<i>jū ār</i>	ihr seid, Sie sind	you are	8
<i>dei ār</i>	sie sind	they are	

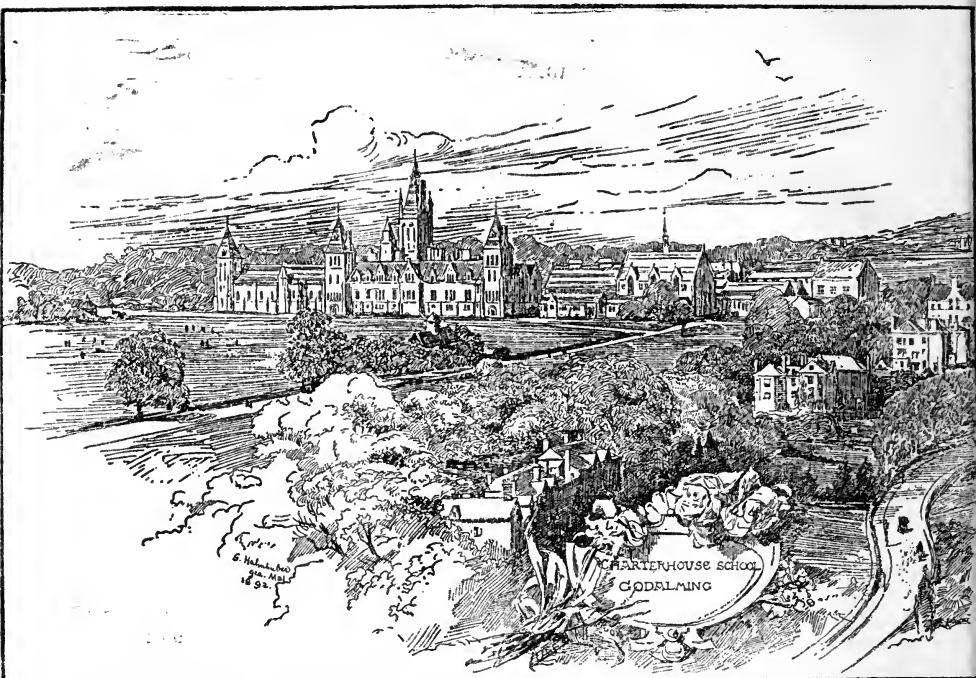
<i>get vp dʒon</i>	steh auf, Johann	get up, John	
<i>get vp bōiz</i>	stehet auf, ihr Knaben	get up, boys ¹⁾	
<i>get vp dʒentlmən</i>	stehen Sie auf, meine Herren	get up, gentlemen	12
<i>sit dāun mēri</i>	setz dich, Marie	sit down, Mary,	
<i>sit dāun gōrtz</i>	setzet euch, ihr Mädchen	sit down, girls ¹⁾	
<i>sit dāun lēidiz</i>	setzen Sie sich, meine Damen	sit down, ladies	
<i>gūd mōrnɪŋ bōiz</i>	guten Tag (Morgen), ihr Knaben	good morning, boys	16
<i>gūd dei gōrtz</i>	adieu (auf Wiedersehen), ihr Mädchen	good day ²⁾ , girls.	

¹⁾ boy Knabe, girl Mädchen: diese Wörter werden im Englischen auch zur Anrede an die Schulfugend verwandt.

²⁾ good day wird im Englischen zur Verabschiedung beim Fortgehen (nicht also wie das norddeutsche „Guten Tag“ zur Begrüßung bei der Ankunft oder Begegnung) gebraucht. Zur Begrüßung bei der Ankunft sagt man ‘good morning’; jedoch wird good morning oft auch beim Fortgehen gebraucht. — Nachmittags sagt man, besonders wenn man bereits zu Mittag gespeist hat, zuweilen ‘Good afternoon’ ²⁴ (*āftərnūn*) = „Guten Nachmittag“. — Good evening (*ivniŋ*) heißt „Guten Abend“ und „Gute Nacht“, während ‘good night’ (*nāit*) nur bei der letzten Verabschiedung vor dem Schlafengehen gebraucht wird. — Good-bye (*gudbāi*, „Behüt Sie Gott, „leben Sie wohl“) sagen meist nur sich nahestehende, sich sonst regelmäßig sehende Personen. — ⁸² How do you do? sagt man 1. zu jemandem, der einem zum ersten Male vorgestellt wird (diesem how do you do [in der Aussprache familiär zuweilen zu *hāu diu dū* abgeschwächt] fügt man dann manchmal noch ein I am very glad to meet you oder eine ähnliche Wendung hinzu); 2. zu Bekannten, denen man nur gelegentlich (nicht ³² regelmäßig) begegnet. — How are you? *hāu ār ju* (meist vertraulich) fragt direkt nach der Gesundheit: „Wie befinden Sie sich?“ „Wie steht’s jetzt (heute) mit Ihrem Befinden?“ — What ails you? (*ēlz*) = (Ich höre, Sie sind krank?) Was fehlt Ihnen (denn)? [wörtlich: Was schmerzt Sie?]

Erster Abschnitt. Einführung in die gesprochene Sprache.

SKETCH I.



First Dialogue.

Getting up.

In a bedroom of Charterhouse School at Godalming, Surrey.

Tim (pulling the blanket and counterpane off Bob's bed). Hullo, Bob,
8 get up. Parker rings the bell loud enough, doesn't he?

Bob (waking up and rubbing his eyes). What, six o'clock already?
I still feel very sleepy.

Tim. That's how it is every morning. Make haste and get
12 dressed. It's twenty minutes past. Have you forgotten what the
Doctor said last week about being more punctual?

Bob. No, I have not; so I won't be late again. (Throwing off the
sheet, he gets out of bed, puts on his trousers and socks and begins to wash.)
16 I say, where's my sponge?

Tim. Don't you see it? There it is by your foot. It has dropped down on the floor.

Bob. All right, I'll pick it up.

Tim (after a few minutes). Are you ready now? 4

Bob. Yes, I'm coming. I am just going to brush my hair and put my brush and comb away.

Tim. That's good. Don't you want your glass of milk? If so, drink it quickly. We are just in time. 8

First Narrative¹⁾.

Tim and Bob are friends. They are at Charterhouse School. Charterhouse School is at Godalming. Godalming is in Surrey, south of London. They are in the bedroom. It is past six o'clock. Parker 12 rings the bell. Doesn't Parker ring the bell loud enough? He rings it very loud. Tim is up. Bob is still in bed. Every morning he feels very sleepy. Now it is twenty minutes after the first morning bell. Tim pulls the counterpane off his friend's bed. He pulls the 16 blanket off. Bob wakes up. He rubs his eyes. He has not forgotten what the Doctor said last week about being late. He throws off the sheet. He gets up. Now he is out of bed and begins to dress. He does not see his sponge. Tim sees it. It has dropped down by Bob's 20 foot. It is on the floor. Bob picks it up. He makes haste and gets dressed. He brushes his hair. After a few minutes he is ready. He puts his brush away. He forgets to drink his glass of milk. Tim tells him to drink it quickly. He will not be late. They'll begin 24 work now.

Questions (Fragen) and Answers (Antworten).

1. Where are Bob and Tim? Bob and Tim are at Charterhouse
[morning? School. 28
2. Who (wer) rings the bell every Parker rings it every morning.

¹⁾ These narratives are chiefly intended to serve as **an exercise for training the pupil's ear and tongue**. At the same time it is their object to develop the pupil's faculty of combination and to extend his knowledge by leading him to understand the meaning of words and phrases which he has just seen in the preceding piece in different combinations. Therefore the pupil should **never** be set to read or write these narratives, unless the teacher has **previously by word of mouth** given him the sentences of these narratives either bit by bit or as a whole, and has made the **pupil himself say them aloud**. After this oral exercise these narratives may occasionally be used as dictation-exercises or may be given to the pupil to copy or to translate.

- | | | |
|------|----------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| 3. | How does he ring it? | He rings it very loud. |
| 4. | What o'clock is it now? | It's twenty minutes past six now. |
| 5. | Who is still in bed? | Bob is still in bed. |
| 4 6. | What does Tim pull off? | He pulls off the blanket and counterpane. |
| 7. | How does Bob feel? | He feels very sleepy. |
| 8. | What does he put on first? | He first puts on his trousers and |
| 8 9. | Where is his sponge? | It is on the floor. [socks.] |
| 10. | When (wann) is he ready? | He is ready after a few minutes. |
| 11. | What does he put away? | He puts his brush and comb away. |
| 12. | Are they ready in time? | They are ready just in time. |

12 **Grammatisches. Grammar Lesson** (8, 23—9, 8; 13, 2—9).

1. That is the way ¹⁾ **to be** cheerful and gay. I [won't =] will not **be** late again. Der Infinitiv (the Infinitive) steht im Satzzusammenhange bald mit, bald ohne to (*tu* oder *t*). Beim Auffagen einzelner Verben setzt man
16 zur Bezeichnung des Infinitivs die Präposition to stets hinzu.

2. All that **you do**, do with your might. Don't you [= **Do you not**] see it? Doesn't = [**Does not**] Parker ring the bell loud enough? Doesn't he? = **does he not**?

20 Anmerkung: don't und doesn't sind Formen der zwanglosen Umgangssprache; in der Schriftsprache und der gewählteren Umgangssprache sagt man dafür do not und does not.

3. Lerne das Schema der Konjugation der Verben (in welchem ~ die Form
24 des Infinitivs andeutet):

a) bejahend (affirmativ): I (you, we, you, they) ~; he ~s.

b) verneinend (negativ): I (you, we, you, they) don't [do not] ~; he doesn't [does not] ~.

28 c) fragend (interrogativ): Do I (you, we, you, they) ~? does he ~?

d) fragend-verneinend: Don't I (you, we, you, they) ~? = Do I (you, we, you, they) not ~? Doesn't he ~? = does he not ~?

4. Wiederhole 13, 2—13, 9; lerne: Am I? are you?... — Am I
32 not? are you not?... — I am not, you are not...

Exercise: Konjugiere nach 16, 25—16, 30 das Präsens von (Conjugate the Present tense of): to be, to do, to forget, to ring, to brush (8, 32):

Conjugate ²⁾: I am ready, I am coming, I am not late, I am just in

¹⁾ Kein Komma, no comma!

²⁾ In doing these exercises care should be taken that the pupil says them off **fluently**, the object of these exercises being to ensure fluency of pronun-

time. — I still feel very sleepy. — I don't (do not) feel very sleepy now. — I begin to wash at twenty minutes past six. — I get up every morning at six o'clock, &c. — I ring the bell at one o'clock. — I do not drink a glass of milk at six o'clock, I drink it at half past six. 4

SKETCH II.

Second Dialogue.

Study.

They enter the big school-room of the boarding-house, go and sit down at their desks, and take out their books and papers.

Bob (speaking to Arthur Jackson, his desk-neighbour). I say, Jackson, show me on what page the Roman history lesson begins.

Jackson. It starts from the top of page 49 (forty-nine) and goes to the last paragraph on page 58 (fifty-eight), three lines from the bottom. 12

Bob. That's a lot to read, nearly ten pages. I wish I'd done it.

Jackson. I'm glad I have: but I've still got my Greek repetition to learn and haven't finished doing my long Latin exercise yet, and then I've got to copy it out into my exercise book. 16

The bell rings, Mr. James, the English Master, enters the room. The boys stop talking and stand up quietly.

Master. Sit down, boys. (The monitor brings the master the school-list to see whether any are absent. Mr. James calls over the boys' names; finding that none are absent, he gives the list back to the monitor.) 20

McGregor (walking up to the master's desk). Please, sir, this word doesn't mean 'oak' here? does it? 24

Master. No, that's a mistake. Will you tell me how it is spelt? You must speak more distinctly.

McGregor. It is spelt i double-l a e c.

Master. How are the a-e written? 28

McGregor. In one letter.

Master. What do you call two vowels written in one letter?

McGregor. A diphthong. The word is i double-l a-e-diphthong c.

Master. That is an older form for *illa*, which you know. Plautus is one of the oldest Latin writers we read in schools. 32

McGregor. Thank you, sir.

Master. But why didn't you look it out in your dictionary?

ciation as well as a sound knowledge of grammar, idiomatical expressions, and some of the most usual groups of words and current phrases.

McGregor. Mine is getting bound, sir.

Master. Now, what is 'oak' in Latin?

McGregor. It is 'ilex', sir.

4 **Master** (after some time). Study is over.

After the master has gone out, the boys put their books, pens, and pencils away carefully, shut their desks, and leave the room to get ready for Chapel and breakfast.

Second Narrative.

8 It is half past six. Bob and Tim enter the school-room of their boarding-house. It is a big room. Bob sits down at his desk. He speaks to his neighbour. Jackson has finished his history lesson.
12 They have a lot of history to learn. They have got nearly ten pages to learn. Bob wishes he had finished it. Jackson has not done his Latin exercise yet. He has not finished learning his Greek lines. At half past six the bell rings for study to begin. The English Master
16 enters the school-room. His name is Mr. James. The boys stand up quietly. Mr. James makes the boys sit down. The monitor brings the school-list. The names of the boys are called over. The master sees that none are absent. They are all present. Study begins.

20 One of the boys does not know a Latin word. His name is McGregor. The master tells the boy what it is. The boy makes a mistake in spelling the Latin word. He does not spell it right. He does not see that a-e are written in one letter. Two letters written
24 in one letter are called a diphthong. *Illæc ætas* in Plautus stands for *illa ætas*. McGregor's Latin-English dictionary is getting bound. Can you tell me the English for *Wleistift*? Can you tell me what oak is called in German? Yes I can; it is *Eiche* in German. At half past
28 seven study is over. The boys shut their books, put their things away carefully, and leave the room. It is time for Chapel. After some time they will have breakfast.

Questions to be answered by the pupils.

32 1. When do Bob and Tim enter the big school-room? — 2. Where do they sit down? — 3. To whom is Bob speaking? — Bob is speaking to Arthur Jackson. — 4. Who is Arthur Jackson? He is Bob's desk-neighbour. — 5. What has Jackson still got to learn? — 6. What is
36 the name of the English Master? — 7. Who brings the master the school-list? — The monitor brings it him. — 8. What does the English Master do? — 9. Who are absent? None are absent (Who is absent?)

None is absent). — 10. To whom does the master give the list back? — He gives it back to the monitor, — 11. What is the name of the boy who walks up to Mr. James's desk? — 12. What does he want? — He wants to know what the Latin word *illæc* means. — 13. What does he say to Mr. James? — 14. What has McGregor forgotten? He has forgotten how 'ilex', which means *oak*, is spelt in Latin. — 15. From what Latin writer is *illæc*? — It is from Plautus, who is a very old Latin writer. — 16. What is *illæc* in the Latin which you have learned? — In the Latin which I have learned *illæc* is *illa*. — 17. Why does McGregor not look the word out in his dictionary? — His dictionary is g. b. — 18. How many mistakes does he make in spelling the Latin word? — He makes one mistake in sp. the L. w. — 19. Whom does Tim wake up every morning? — He wakes Bob up e. m. — 20. What makes you feel cheerful and gay? — To do one thing at a time, and to do it well: to work while I work, and to play while I play.

Conversation. 1. What is your name? — My name is ... — 2. How many mistakes have you got in your English exercise? — 3. How many mistakes did you make in your German dictation? — 4. What is the German for oak? (What is oak called in German? What do you call oak in German?) — 5. How do you spell dictionary? (How is dictionary spelt?) — 6. Is the bell ringing? — Yes, sir, it is. No, sir, it is not. — 7. Have you got a pen? — Yes, sir, I have. — No, sir, I have not. — 8. Where is your English copy-book? (Where have you got your English exercise-book?) — Here it is, sir. — 9. Go on [*ſahre fort, lieſ (ſchreibe) weiter.*] — 10. Put your English books away. We will stop here. The English lesson is over. Leave the room now. Go and play. Talk and play.

Grammar Lesson.

28

1. Der beſtimmte Artikel (9,9): the = der, die, daſ; die. The master, the sponge, the bell, the girl, the thing, the boys. (Gr. § 8.)

Der unbeſtimmte Artikel (9,15): a way, — an older form, — a book, an English book — a friend, an old friend, a very old friend. (Gr. § 9.)

2. Geſchlecht der Subſtantive. Masculine, feminine, neuter: I say, where's my sponge? Don't you see it? There it is by your foot. It has dropped down on the floor. All right, I'll pick it up. — Who brings the master the school-list? The monitor brings it him. (Gr. § 31.)

36

3. Affuſiv nach Präpoſitionen. 2,34; 2,35; 3,4. (Gr. § 106.)

4. Not — never: Why didn't you look it out? = Umgangssprache (16,20); Schriftsprache = Why did you not look it out? — A mother's heart never grows old. Die Umschreibung mit to do (die sogenannte interrogative Konjugationsform) steht im Präsens und Impf. der Vollverben nur bei der Verneinung not, nie bei never. (Gr. § 77.)

5. Learn the affirmative, interrogative, negative, and interrogative-negative forms of the Present tense of the verbs **To speak**, **To call** (§ 69 f, § 77), and **To have** (§ 74, § 77 note 2).

Exercise. Conjugate: While the master enters the room, I stop talking and stand up quietly. — I do not talk while the master speaks. — I call over the boys' names and find that all are present. —
 12 I am glad to learn English. — I have forty lines to copy out from the bottom of page 1 (one) to the top of page 3 (three). — I have a lot of lessons to do. — I want a Latin dictionary with the old forms of Plautus in it. — I feel cheerful and gay. — I think¹⁾ it's a mistake
 16 to leave the room now, the lesson is not yet over. — I have got a good Latin dictionary, I have not got a Greek dictionary.

SKETCH III. Third Dialogue.

20

At Breakfast.

The boys enter the dining-hall, and Sidgwick, the head monitor, who belongs to the Sixth Form, says grace.

Tim. No rolls! Whose turn is it to fetch the rolls this morning?
 24 It's yours, Bob, isn't it? Don't be long. Don't bring soft ones, but nice and crisp. Davies, would you mind passing the milk down to this end of the table? My porridge is too hot.

Arthur Jackson. I say, Parker, you haven't given me any meat.
 28 That's not fair. Which is it to-day, cold mutton or roast beef? Give me a clean knife and fork, please; those which you gave me are dirty; take them away. Saunders, if you are going to the cupboard, you might get me my jam.

32 **Bob.** There's not much in your pot, because it got spilt yesterday. But here, take some of our marmalade. — Hi, you've got my bread.

Tim. It is the Merit-Half to-morrow. Some of us are going to town with Evans for the whole day. Are you coming, Bob?

36 **Bob.** No, I am not; I haven't got the half-holiday this time.

¹⁾ no comma!

Tim. Poor Bob, I'm very sorry you've had such bad luck; but let's ask Evans if you may come down to the station to see us off; he would give you three quarters of an hour's leave, I'm sure.

Sidgwick. Silence. (Grace is said and the boys leave the Hall).

Third Narrative.

The boys are in the dining-hall. Sidgwick says grace. He is the head monitor of the boarding-house. He belongs to the Sixth Form. He is the top-boy of the Sixth, and the head boy of the whole school. 8 This morning it is Bob's turn to fetch the hot rolls. He has to make haste. Tim's porridge is very hot. So he puts some cold milk in. Davies passes it him. Jackson has not got any meat. Parker has not given him any. Parker is the servant of the boarding-house. Jackson 12 now gets some cold roast beef and a clean knife and fork. His jam-pot is in the cupboard. Saunders brings it him. There's not much jam in it, because it got spilt the day before. Bob gives him some of his marmalade. Bob is a good boy. While Bob is talking to Arthur 16 Jackson, one of his neighbours at table has by mistake taken his bread from him. What does he say when he sees his bread has gone? — The boys who have done well in their work are going to have a holiday. They have got what is called the Merit-Half. The 20 Merit-Half means a half-holiday for the good boys. This time the Doctor has given them a whole day to go up to town. Tim feels sorry his friend Bob has not got the Merit-Half this time. After breakfast he will ask Mr. Evans whether in the morning he may go down to the 24 station to see his friends off. — The boys stop talking when the monitor stands up to say grace. — Breakfast is over. They all leave the dining-hall. After some time they are going to begin their lessons.

Grammar Lesson.

28

1. Singular [oder (ganz selten) vollständig: the singular number], Plural. — Pluralzeichen der Substantive = s, gesprochen s oder z oder 'z (8,25—8,33): sentence sentences, glass glasses, page pages, case fall cases. Merke: half Hälfte halbes 3,12 Hälften — Von den wenigen anders gebildeten Pluralen sind bereits vorgekommen: man men, child children, penny pence 7,21 [Gr. § 26].

2. Possessiver oder sächsischer Genitiv (steht vor dem regierenden Worte.) Declination ersetzt durch of und to. [Gr. § 25, § 29]. Eigennamen haben 36 keinen Artikel. Declension. Cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative.

Genitive: pulling the blanket off **Bob's** bed [= off the bed of Bob]. — walking up to **the master's** desk [= to the desk of the master]. — Mr. James calls over **the boys'** names [the names of the boys; aber the boy's name = the name of the boy]. — **Mr. James's** desk (*džěvmz'z* page 19, line 3) = the desk of Mr. James (*džěvmz*). — Tim's porridge = the porridge of Tim. — Bob's turn = the turn of Bob. — a mother's heart = the heart of a mother 2,22. — three quarters of an hour's leave = leave of three quarters of an hour 21,3.

They enter the big school-room **of the boarding-house** 17,8. — father **of the man** 3,2. — children **of a larger growth** 3,4. — Sidgwick is the head boy **of the whole school** 21,8. —

Dative: hard **to a willing mind** 2,34. — Mr. James gives the list back **to the monitor** 17,22. — Davies passes the cold milk **to Tim**; he passes it **to his neighbour** 21,11. — Sidgwick belongs **to the Sixth Form** 20,22. —

Unbezeichneter Dativ (ohne to: nur vor Personen, wenn gleichzeitig Akkusativ der Sache dahinter steht): the monitor brings **the master** the school-list 17,20 [Gr. § 84 c].

3. Wortstellung: **The end** crowns the work. There **it** is on the floor. — Throwing off the sheet, **he** gets out of bed. — That's how **it** is every morning. I won't **be late** again. — I'll just brush **my hair**. Bob rubbing **his eyes**. I wish I had done **it** 17,14 (Gr. § 113 a).

Zumeist steht die **gerade Wortfolge**: 1. Subject, 2. Predicate, 3. Object.

4. Wortstellung in direkten und indirekten Frageätzen; Umschreibung mit to do (interrogative Konjugationsform § 77): 1. Are you ready now? Tim asks Bob whether he is ready now. — 2. What is 'oak' in Latin? The master asks McGregor what 'oak' is in Latin. — 3. Does not P. ring the bell loud enough? Tim asks his friend whether P. does not r. the b. l. e. — 4. Do you not see it? He asks whether B. does not see it. — 5. Where is my sponge? He asks where his sponge is. — 6. What page is the Roman history lesson? He asks what p. the R. h. l. is. — 7. On what page does the R. h. l. begin? Show me on what p. the R. h. l. begins. — 8. Who rings the bell every morning? He asks who rings ... — 9. What does 'ilex' mean? He asks what 'ilex' means. — 10. Why did you not look it out? He asks why he did not l. it o. — 11. What does Tim see? I ask what Tim sees. — 12. Where does he see it? I ask where he sees it.

Direkte Fragen: In Fragen nach dem Subjekt (in Subjektsfragen) steht die gerade Wortfolge. In allen übrigen Fällen steht die umgekehrte Wortfolge (Inversion, Umstellung des Subjekts § 114 a) und gleichzeitig im Präsens und 3pf. der Vollverben die Umschreibung mit *to do*. 4

In indirekten Fragen unterbleibt die Umschreibung mit *to do*, es sei denn, daß die indirekte Frage durch *not* verneint ist (§ 77, Anm. 4).

5. Subjektsfragen (Fragen nach dem Subjekt) werden eingeleitet durch *who* *mer?* — *what* *was?* *was für ein?* *welcher?* — *which* *welcher, =e, =es* 8 von zweien? *wer* oder *was* (aus einer beschränkten bestimmten Anzahl)? — oder durch *whose* *wessen?* + *Nominativ*.

Object-questions are introduced by [begin with] *whom?* *what?* *which?* — or by *whose* followed by an accusative. 12

Subject-questions: *Who* says grace? — *Which* boy (*Which* of the boys) says grace? — *What* pot stands in the cupboard? — *Whose* sponge has dropped on the floor?

Object-questions: *Whom* does Tim wake up every morning? — 16 *What* does Bob fetch? — *Which* meat does Parker bring to-day? — *Whose* blanket does Tim pull off?

Exercise: a) Write the following sentences and turn them into negative (interrogative, &c) sentences: 1. The boys enter the dining- 20 hall. — 2. Bob fetches the hot rolls this morning; they are nice and crisp. — 3. It is Bob's turn to get the rolls. — 4. The master takes the list from the monitor. — 5. McGregor does his Greek exercise. — 6. We go up to town to-morrow, we start in the morning. — 7. I have my Ger- 24 man repetition (my German lines) to learn this morning. — 8. Bob brushes his hair every morning and puts his brush away. — 9. You want a soft pen and two hard ones. — 10. He wants to learn English.

— **b)** Turn the affirmative sentences of Narrative III into the negative 28 [form]. — **c)** Find answers to the following questions where no answer is

given: 1. Of whom do Bob and Tim talk in the bedroom? They talk of the Doctor. — 2. To whom does Davies pass the milk? He passes it to Tim. — 3. For whom does Bob fetch the rolls? He fetches them 32 for all the boys. — 4. Of what do the boys talk in Dialogue III (three)? They talk of the Merit-Half. — 5. To what boy does P. give no meat? He gives no meat to Jackson (He gives Jackson no meat). — 6. To what form does the head monitor belong? — 7. From whom does the 36 master take the school-list? — 8. When does the monitor say 'Silence'? He says it when breakfast is over. — 9. How does Bob feel

every morning? — 10. Why do you not look out the word in your dictionary? I do not look it out, because my d. is getting b. —

11. Where do we find the boys in the third dialogue? We find them in the dining-hall. — d) Retranslate the eleven preceding sentences. —

e) Conjugate the following sentences affirmatively, negatively, or: in the affirmative, negative [form]: I give the boys three pages to learn. —

I walk up to the master's desk and speak to him. — I see Bob's sponge. —

8 I am sorry I have not got a half-holiday this time. — I think the boys' books are getting bound now. — I know what 'oak' means in Latin. —

I pass the cold milk to Jackson. — I fetch the hot rolls before breakfast.

— I see the boys off when they go up to town.

12

SKETCH IV.

Fourth Dialogue.

The Merit-Half Holiday. First Part: A Trip to Town.

Leaving Godalming Station, about 35 miles from London, on the

16

L. & S.W.¹⁾

Tim. Good-bye, Bob. — Please, sir, have you got tickets for us all?

Master. Yes. It costs four shillings and twopence halfpenny, third class return. Jackson, have you got your ticket?

20 **Jackson.** Yes, sir, I have. (The train comes in, it stops; they get into a carriage.)

Jackson. Shall we have to change at Woking?

Master. No, we go straight through to Waterloo, without any
24 change. Then we'll cross Waterloo Bridge and walk down to Charing Cross.

Tim. Here we are at Vauxhall, only one more station. Don't you hear the man calling out 'All tickets ready'? (They leave Waterloo
28 Station and walk, by Waterloo Bridge and the Strand, to Charing Cross.)

Jackson. How funny the river looks with the tide out and the ships and ugly barges sticking fast in the mud, quite out of the water.

Tim. Two years ago Bob and I went from that pier there down
32 to Greenwich on an L. C. C. steamboat, and there were so many people that we couldn't sit down. I believe that the boats have stopped running now as they did not pay.

¹⁾ The English are very fond of abbreviations: here L. & S. W. stands for London and South Western (Railway); and L. C. C. for London County Council.

Master. Can anybody tell me what that fine building is over there in the City?

Tim. Yes, I can. That's the dome of St. Paul's Cathedral, which was copied from St. Peter's at Rome. You can see it far better from here than closer to. It's a pity the cathedral is so shut in by warehouses and shops.

Jackson. There on the left is Big Ben in the Clock Tower.

Another Boy. Please, sir, what's that building there? 8

Master. That's Somerset House, and here's the Strand; we will turn to the left. Presently we shall pass the Hotel Cecil, one of the largest and most frequented hotels in the world. On the other side its windows overlook the quiet gardens of the Thames Embankment. 12

Fourth Narrative.

This is a holiday for those boys who have got the Merit-Half. They are going to take a trip to town with Mr. Evans. They are at Godalming Station ready for the train. Godalming Station is on the London and South Western Railway. There are two stations at Godalming, the Old Station and the New Station. It is at the New Station that they wait for the London train. Bob has got leave to come down with them to the station to see them off. Now Tim says good-bye to him. We know Bob has some lessons that day. Mr. Evans has taken tickets for the boys going up to London. They go third class, and have taken return tickets. One return ticket costs four shillings and twopence halfpenny. Here the train comes in. Now it stops. The master and the boys get in. They will not have to change at any station. They go all the thirty-five miles straight through to Waterloo Station. Waterloo Station is in London. Now they are at the station called Vauxhall. They have only one more station to Waterloo. Now the train stops. There is a man calling out to get all the tickets ready. He comes to see all the tickets and takes off the halves of the boys' return tickets. Now the train gets on to Waterloo Station. The boys get out of the carriage, leave the station and walk down to Waterloo Bridge. They see the Thames. The tide is out, and some of the ships and barges are sticking fast in the mud. Doesn't that look funny? They are quite out of the water standing in the mud of the river. Tim sees the pier he went from to Greenwich two years before. He went there with Bob on a steam- 36

boat. Greenwich is on the Thames, four miles from London Bridge. From London Bridge it costs fourpence to get there. Greenwich is down the river. "Do you see St. Paul's?" says the Master to Tim. —
 4 "Yes, I do", says Tim, "there it is on the right, the sun is shining, so I see its dome very well." Jackson says he knows where Big Ben is. It is on his left, in the Clock Tower at Westminster Bridge. The Clock Tower in Westminster and St. Paul's in the City are fine buildings.
 8 Getting to the end of Waterloo Bridge they see another big building. It is Somerset House. Now they have crossed the bridge and are going to turn to the left. Here they are in the Strand and walk down to Charing Cross. They pass one of the finest and largest hotels in London.
 12 It is called the Cecil. They won't be many minutes before they get to Charing Cross. Just a few minutes' walk (Just a walk of a few minutes). I am sorry we are not there with them.

Grammar Lesson and Exercise.

16 1. Turn into a) Subject-questions (using one or more of the following words: Who? Which? What? Whose + nominative?) the sentences: 21, 6—11. — b) Object-questions (Whom? Which? What? Whose + accusative?): 24, 11; 25, 30—31; 20, 11; 17, 21; 18, 28; 23, 26. — c) Predicate-
 20 questions (Ask: What do I [you, we, you, they] do? or: What does he (she, it) do? — What did I (you, he ...) do? 25, 30—32.

d) Other questions may be α) Place-questions (Where?): 26, 10; 25, 37. — β) Time-questions (When)? 18, 29. — γ) Cause-questions
 24 (Why?): 21, 10. — δ) Manner-questions (How?): 17, 19.

2. Conjugate: I know Tim Vaughan is a very good scholar. — I want ten shillings to go to town; I go there by train. — I do my lessons quietly. — I go down to the station to see them off. — I walk
 28 down to the river to go by the steamboat.

SKETCH V. Fifth Dialogue.

The Merit-Half Holiday. Second Part: Hyde Park and South Kensington Museum.

32 Mr. Evans. Here's Charing Cross, the terminus at which people arrive when travelling from France. Shall we take a motor-bus? If so, that red one's ours.

Jackson. I beg your pardon, sir; I think you are wrong, that
 36 goes to Victoria.

Mr. Evans. I see. Well, then, let's take a horse-bus. This white one will do. Get up outside.

Tim. I say, driver, why don't you start? Are you waiting till Nelson comes down from his column? 4

Driver. That's the worst of you young gents, you are always so impatient. You never want to sit still. Well, we're off now. They pass through Trafalgar Square, then go up Regent Street and down Piccadilly (which are two of the most elegant and fashionable streets of 8 London), as far as Hyde Park Corner.

Tim. Hyde Park Corner at last. Here we get down and walk along by Rotten Row and look at the swells riding their horses.

Jackson. There's the lake, the jolly Serpentine; there was some 12 fine skating there last winter. I do like skating.

Wilkes. Please, sir, what's that splendid monument?

Mr. Evans. That's the Albert Memorial. It was erected by the English nation in memory of Queen Victoria's husband, Albert the 16 Good, who, at the Great Exhibition, in 1851, had the Crystal Palace put up here before it was taken to Sydenham. Let us read the inscription: "Erected by Queen Victoria and her people to the memory of Albert, Prince Consort, as a tribute of their gratitude to a life devoted to the public good." 20

Jackson. Further behind those trees on the right is Kensington Palace where the late Queen, the mother of King Edward VII., was born.

Mr. Evans (a little later when they are about to leave the park). Now then, boys, this way. We'll go by the Underground to South Kensington 24 and after lunch spend the afternoon in looking over the museums.

Fifth Narrative.

Here they are at Charing Cross. They want to go to Hyde Park and see Rotten Row. They don't want to walk, they do not wish 28 to take a motor-bus, they are going to take a horse-bus. Mr. Evans thinks they have to take a red bus. He is not right, he is wrong. Jackson tells him that the red one goes to Victoria Station. They have to take a white one. So they run down the street to get to the 32 white one. They don't want to go inside. They want to see all they can of the streets. So they get up outside. They have to wait, the bus doesn't start yet. They see Nelson standing on his column in Trafalgar Square. Tim gets impatient and tells the driver not to wait 36 till Nelson comes down to go with them. The driver is a wit. "All right, you young gents," he says, "here we are starting off." He is

ready now. Off they go, passing through Trafalgar Square, Regent Street, and Piccadilly. At last they are at Hyde Park Corner. They get down from the bus and walk into the Park. In Rotten Row they
 4 look at the many fine horses and the swells riding (on) them. Now Arthur Jackson sees the fine lake in the Park. It is called the Serpentine. They haven't forgotten the splendid skating they had there last winter. Walking along they come to the fine monument
 8 erected in memory of Albert the Good. He was a German prince and the husband of Queen Victoria. He has done much for England. At the time of the Great Exhibition he had the Crystal Palace put up in Hyde Park. It was taken down and put up again at Sydenham.
 12 There it still stands now. Further behind the monument of Albert the Good is Kensington Palace. It stands behind the trees on the right. There Queen Victoria was born. Now they leave Hyde Park and are going to take the Underground railway at High Street
 16 Kensington Station. From High Street Kensington to South Kensington it is only a few minutes. At South Kensington they are going to look over the museums. The South Kensington Museums are very fine. I think they are going to have a fine time of it. If they do
 20 not spend too much time there, and if they get into the right bus, they will not be late in getting back to Godalming. They return (go back) there by train.

Conversation. Did you never go by the Underground when
 24 you were in London? No, sir, I never did. (Yes, sir, I did.) — Is your name A? Yes, sir, it is. — Is not this boy's name R? No, sir, his name is Y. — Ask your desk-neighbour his name.

Grammar Lesson.

28 **1. Imperative 2nd si.:** Hullo, Bob, get up 14,8. — Don't be long! Don't bring soft ones 20,24. — **2nd plur.:** Sit down, boys 17,20. — **1st plur.:** let us take a horse-bus 27,1.

to have. Present and Perfect: I have done it 17,14; I have still
 32 got . . . I have not finished 17,16. — Have you got your ticket? 24,19. I have got to copy it out 17,17. — The Master has gone out 18,5. **It has dropped** down on the floor 15,2. — Parker, **you have not given** me any meat 20,27. — You **have had** such bad luck 21,1.

36 **Past tense and Pluperfect:** I wish I had done it 17,14.

to do: why didn't you look [= did you not look] it out in your dictionary 17,35? — Things **done** by halves are never done right 3,12.

Learn the affirmative and the negative forms of the Imperative mood, and of the Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect tenses of the verbs **To call, To speak, To have** § 69f., § 74, § 77.

2. Starke (oder ablautende) und schwache Verben: Strong and weak verbs, 4 8,36 und § 68. The principal parts of a verb are: 1. The Present Infinitive, — 2. The Past tense, — 3. The Past Participle.

a) **Starke (ablautende) Verben:** I. (§ 71): to ride 27,11, rode, ridden — to write 17,28 — to take 20,33 — to grow 2,22 — to throw 14,14 — 8 to know 17,32 — to see 15,1 — to give 20,28 — to speak 1,14 — to bear 27,22 — to forget 14,12. — II. (§ 71): to begin 2,14 — to drink 15,8 — to ring 14,8 — to run 27,32 — to come 2,32 — to stick 24,30 — to bind 18,1 — to find 17,22 — to read 17,33 — to sit 13,18 — to get 13,10 — to 12 shine 2,15 — to stand 17,19 — to shut 18,6 — to cost 24,18 — to put 18,5.

b) **Schwache Verben:** § 70 c: to ail, ailed, ailed 13,35 — to answer 18,31 — to ask 21,2 — to belong 20,21 — to brush 15,5, brushes (8,32) — to call 17,21 — to cross 24,24 — to crown 2,23 — to dress 14,12 — to enter 17,8 16 — to erect 27,19 — to fetch 20,23 — to finish 17,16 — to follow 2,7 — to frequent 25,11 — to laugh 2,18 — to look 17,35 — to overlook 25,12 — to mind 20,25 — to pass 20,25 — to pick 15,3 — to play 3,9, played, played — to pull 14,7 — to start 17,12 — to talk 17,19 — to thank 17,34 20 — to turn 25,10 — to return 28,21 — to wait 2,33 — to walk 17,23 — to want 15,7 — to wash 14,15 — to wish 17,14 — to work 3,9 — to arrive 26,33 arrived, arrived — to believe 24,33 — to change 24,22 — to conjugate 16,35 — to devote 27,20 — to introduce 23,11 — to please 24 24,17 — to precede 24,4 — to require 2,36 — to retranslate 24,4 — to skate 27,18 — to trifle 3,15 — to use 26,16 — to copy 17,17, copied, copied. copies — to beg 26,35, begged, begged, begs — to rub 14,9, rubbed, rubbed, rubs — to drop 15,2, dropped, dropped, drops — to stop 17,19, stopped, 28 stopped — to travel, travelled, travelled; travelling 26,33, travels — to learn 17,16, learnt (learned), learnt (learned) — to spell 17,25, spelt, spelt — to spill 20,32, spilt, spilt — to pay 24,34, paid, paid — § 70 d. II a. to spend 27,25, spent, spent. — II b. to hear 24,27 — to tell 3,14 — to say 14,18 — 32 to sleep 2,16 — to feel 14,10 — to mean 17,24 — to leave 18,6 — II c. to make 2,15 — to bring 17,20 — to think 26,35 — to catch 2,16.

c) **Irregular Verbs (§ 72):** to wake up 14,9, woke up, waked up — to show 17,11, showed, shown — to do 2,14 did, done — to go 15,5 went, gone. 36

d) **Auxiliary Verb (§ 73. 74):** to have, had, had.

3. Pronunciation of the ending -ed: The ending -ed is pronounced *d* (voiced *p* after voiced sounds; *t* (voiceless *t*) after voiceless sounds; *ɪd* after *d*, or *t*. (§ 70 a).

Exercise: a) Write out — and spell (giving to the letters of the alphabet their English names) — the affirmative, interrogative, and negative forms of the 3rd si. pres. indicative, and of the 3rd si. past tense of the verbs on 29,7—29,37 — b) Conjugate — in the interrogative, in the negative and in the affirmative — the Past, the Perfect, and Pluperfect tenses of: I go out with my friend — I finish learning my lesson — I take a fine trip in the afternoon — c) Put into the Past tense — changing (if you can do so) the subject singular into the plural and the subject plural into the singular — the sentences of Narrative III.

Dictation-exercise. (Where there is a gap, a dash, or a blank left, it has to be filled in [filled up, completed] by the pupils). The history lesson that Bob had to learn, was very —. I believe he knew it — when he had to say it off. As Tim's porridge was too —, he asked Davies to give him some — milk.

SKETCH VI.

Sixth Dialogue.

16

Examinations over.

Tim. Another paper and then it's all over.

Bob. I'm jolly glad. We've had quite enough of hard work this last week, haven't we?

Tim. I should have thought you might have said these last three weeks. Why, we've hardly been out since the Merit-Half.

Bob. Yes, do you remember, I went to meet you that day, but you missed your train and barely got home in time for Evening Prayers?

Tim. Of course I do, for we had a narrow escape from getting kept in.

Bob. I do hope I've done well in this Exam, for I badly want to get a Senior Scholarship. If I didn't, I shouldn't come back next term.

Tim. It will be all right. You didn't make many mistakes in your Greek Prose, though it was an unusually difficult piece.

Bob. Yes, still Jackson probably had equally few. I'm worse than he is at unseens.

Tim. Well, it's not much good worrying. I'm going to get some biscuits and two small stone bottles of gingerbeer, for I'm thirsty. Shall you come with me? Afterwards we can get our boxes ready, so that we shan't have to hurry in the morning. Our train starts early to-morrow, it leaves at 8.35.

Bob. Shall we take a taxi or a cab to take us from Waterloo to King's Cross?

Tim. That depends upon how much money we have left.

Bob. I have precious little. I don't suppose you've much either. 4

Sixth Narrative.

It is examination-time. One more examination-paper and all the examinations are at an end! How very glad they are! They've had to work hard these last three weeks and have not been out much. Tim 8 still remembers the fine time he and the other boys had on the holiday when they went up to town. It was a jolly day; still Tim had a narrow escape from having a bad end that day. He hardly got home in time for evening prayers. — Bob, Tim, and Jackson did not make 12 many mistakes (have not got many m.) in their Greek Prose. So Bob who had been working very hard the whole term, hopes he will get a scholarship. If he does not get it, he cannot come back to school again. [If he did not get a scholarship, he would not come back to 16 school again]. — Their examination work has made them feel thirsty. So Bob and Tim get some gingerbeer, which I am sure will make them cheerful. They are having it in nice small stone bottles. How many bottles do they take? Afterwards they get their things ready for going 20 home early next morning. So they will not have to worry about their things in the morning. They will be in time for the 8·35 train.

Grammar Lesson.

1. Adjektive bleiben — gleichviel ob attributiv, prädikativ oder im Plural — unver- 24 ändert. Einzige Veränderung: Komparation auf -er, -est [§ 48. 49].

a) englisch-germanische Steigerung = -er, -est: old, older, oldest — gay, gayer, gayest — hard — soft — clean — cold — crisp — quiet — small — fond — slow — narrow — fair — new — high — long. 28

large, larger, largest — close, closer, closest — fine — nice — sure — late [pät, later [päter, latest [päteſt, last leſt.

b) französisch-romanische Steigerung = Umſchreibung mit more, most [Gr. § 49 c.]: elegant, more elegant, most elegant — fashionable — fre- 32 quented — perfect — punctual — difficult — cheerful — splendid — impatient — willing.

c) much viel (many viele), more, most — good, better, best — bad, worse, worst.

2. Die unbestimmten Fürwörter *one* — *ones* nach einem attributiven Adjektiv als Vertreter des vorangegangenen Substantivs. Bob, it is your turn to fetch the hot rolls. Don't bring soft ones, but nice and crisp (ones) 20,24. —
 4 Shall we take a motor-bus? That red one is ours. — Take a white one 27,32.

3. Pronouns.

a) Personal and Possessive [§ 40, 41 a]: of him 2,35. — her 27,19; its 25,12; their 18,5. — mine 18,1; ours 26,34; yours 20,24.

8 b) Demonstrative [§ 44 a]: this dieser 17,23; these 30,15. — that jener 26,34; those 25,14.

c) Determinative [§ 44 e]: To whom much is given. of **him** [demjenigen] much shall [soll demaleinst] be required 2,35. — **they** [diejenen] laugh best who laugh last 2,18. — **those** [diejenigen] which you gave me are dirty 20,29.

d) Interrogative [§ 45]:

α) nur substantivisch: **Who** wer? 15,29; auch pluralisch: Who are 16 absent? None are absent 18,38. Who is absent? None is absent. — Whose wissen? 20,23; to whom wem? an wen? zu wem? 18,33; whom wen? 19,12; of whom von wem? 23,30; from whom von wem? 23,36; for whom 23,32.

β) substantivisch und adjektivisch: **What** does the English Master 20 do? 18,37; on what page? 17,11; — **Which** is it to-day, mutton or beef? 20,28; which boy? which of the boys? 23,18. See page 23, lines 7—9.

e) Relative [§ 46]: Albert the Good **who** [welcher = singular] 27,17; they laugh best who [= plural] laugh last; whose 33,17; of whom 33,12; 24 to whom 2,35; whom 33,20 . . . — the dome of St. Paul's Cathedral in London, **which** was copied from St. Peter's at Rome 25,3; an older form for 'illa', which you know 17,32; of which; to which. — Auch that dient als Relativ, aber nur, wenn keine Präposition unmittelbar davor steht, und 28 auch dann nur in einschränkenden Relativsätzen [§ 46 b]: all **that** you do 3,11.

In einschränkenden Relativsätzen — nur in solchen, nicht in erweiternden [§ 46 b] — bleibt der Affixativ des Relativpronomens (whom, which, that), falls nicht unmittelbar davor eine Präposition steht — besonders in der Umgangssprache — häufig weg: Plautus is one of the oldest writers [which: Schriftstellerlektürebuch, welches] we read in schools 17,33. — They want to see all [that] they can 27,33. Tim still remembers the fine time [which] he and the other boys had on the Merit-Half 31,9.

36 f) Some — any; no — not any = Indefinite Pronouns [§ 47 b]: after **some** time 18,4; — take **some** of our marmalade 20,33; — **some** of us are going to town 20,34; to see whether any are absent 17,21. —

Do we change at any station? No, you don't. Yes, you do; you change at W. — Had he any money left when he came back? No, he had not any money left. Yes, he had some money left. — Parker, you haven't given me **any** meat (20,27); = you have given me **no** meat; — P. gave him no meat = did not give him any meat; — he has no meat = he has not any meat; — he has got no meat = he has not got any meat; — the sleeping fox catches **no** poultry (2,16) = does **not** catch **any** poultry; — they haven't **any** lessons [have **no** lessons] that afternoon. 8

Exercise. 1. Read and retranslate the following sentences: Tim is a good scholar. Add a relative sentence to Tim: Tim, who does his lessons well, . . . or: whom we know well, . . . or: whose lessons are always well done, . . . or: of whom the Master speaks well, . . . or: to whom this new dictionary was given. — The paper is clean; — add: which is on the desk — which we see on the desk — of which we speak. — The exercise-book to which this paper belongs is on the desk. — The piece of paper one half of which is clean is on the desk. — Men who are willing to work, find pleasure in their work. — Men whose work is a pleasure to them (to whom their work is a pleasure), will find some work. — The men of whom we spoke, found pleasure in their work. — The men whom we saw at work yesterday, were cheerful and gay. 20

2. Make into one each two of the following sentences, using the relative: Tim is a hard working boy. We know him well. — Bob and T. are hard w. boys. We know them well. — Tim is in most cases very punctual. This time he arrived after the bell had rung. — Davies did not mind passing the milk to Tim. Davies is a good boy. — Tim arrived in time. His hair was well combed and brushed. — The boys laughed. We dropped their books. — Tim is a good scholar. Nothing is hard to him. — Tim knows his lessons well. He says them without a mistake. — The books are clean. I take them. — The monument was erected by the English nation. It stands in Hyde Park. — The monument stands in Hyde Park. The English erected it. — The monument stands in Hyde Park. I walk to it. 32

3. Change 'no' into 'not any' [Put 'not any' instead of 'no'] in the following sentences: I have no money. — I have got no money. — I have no money left. — I have left them no money. — He had no money left when he came back. — He had left no money when he went off. — He left no money when he started. 36

4. Conjugate: a) in the Present tense: I am not right, I am wrong;

it is not the red bus, it is the white one. — It is my turn to fetch the hot rolls this morning; I do not bring soft ones, I get nice and crisp ones. — **b)** Past tense: I get in five minutes before the train starts. — I go by the Underground. — I take a bus at Trafalgar Square and get down at Hyde Park Corner. — I know where Big Ben is. — I walk up the street and turn to the left. — I cross the bridge and walk into the Park. — I tell my friend not to wait till the driver has come back. — **c)** Past and Perfect tenses: I ask Mr. James for a softer pen; mine is too hard. — I tell Parker to give me some meat, to give me no meat, not to give me any meat, but some hot porridge. — I change at no station, I do not change at any station.

- 12 **5.** Find questions to which the first four sentences in Narrative V are the answers (Find questions for Nar. V, sentences 1–4). — **6.** Say in all persons: It is my turn now; it is mine. — **7.** Put in the relative pronouns which are understood in the following sentences: Have you
16 still got the books I gave you? Is this the man we saw last night?

SKETCH VII. Seventh Dialogue.

At Barnet Station

20 on the G. N. R., nine miles from King's Cross.

Tim. I'm awfully glad you're coming to stay at our place.

Bob. Well, of course, I couldn't very well go home.

Tim. No, Australia is rather too far off to get to. Isn't it funny
24 to think that your father and mine were once school-chums together?

Hullo, we're slackening. We're nearly there. (He lets the window down.)
I can see the station.

Bob. Yes, and there's uncle on the platform. (Much excited, they
28 open the door and get out.)

Tim. Hullo, dad, it is jolly to come home again! Is Warner here with Old Major?

Mr. Vaughan. Yes, there he is, and there is Rover, the new dog,
32 too. Well, Bob, I hope you'll enjoy your holidays with us, I should like you to feel happy.

Bob. I'm sure I shall, uncle; one can't help it, there's not a more beautiful place than Greenhill Park anywhere.

36 **Mr. Vaughan** (to Tim, who has left them for a short time). Got all the luggage in, Tim?

Tim. No, only the most necessary, Beesley can come to fetch the rest in the light cart after dinner. We can start now. May I drive?

Mr. V. Yes, you may, if you won't get into trouble. (After twenty minutes' drive, to Bob.) There's our house. 4

Bob. Stop, I'll get down to open the gate.

Tim. Open it wide. Do be quick! You needn't shut it. There are both the girls, and there's mama, too, standing in front of the porch, waving their handkerchiefs to us. 8

Seventh Narrative.

Tim and Bob have got their boxes ready in the evening. They will want all their things in the holidays. They will spend their holidays at Barnet, which is the place of Tim's father. Tim is very glad his friend Bob is going to spend the holidays with him. That will be a jolly time! Of course, Bob could not go home to Australia. That is rather too far away to get there for the holidays. He cannot go to see his father, so he goes to see his father's friend. Tim's and Bob's fathers were once school-chums at Charterhouse. At that time Charterhouse School was not yet at Godalming, but it was still in London. The two friends Bob and Tim are going to travel by the London and South Western Railway. They are going to take an early train, which will bring them to London at about ten o'clock. From Waterloo they go in a cab to King's Cross, the end station or terminus of the Great Northern Railway in London. Tim thinks they cannot take a taxi, as he has not money enough to pay for it. They will be at Barnet Station about twelve o'clock, where they think Mr. Vaughan, Tim's father, will come to meet them. We know that in going from Waterloo Station to King's Cross they will have to cross Waterloo Bridge and the Strand again. 12 16 20 24

It is just past twelve o'clock. They have nearly arrived at Barnet Station. The train is slackening on coming in to the station. They have let the carriage-window down and can see Tim's father waiting for them on the platform. They are much excited and are out of the carriage in no time. How glad they feel to see Mr. Vaughan again! He has come in his carriage to take them home to Greenhill Park. He wishes Bob to enjoy his holidays with them and to feel happy while staying with them. To this Bob answers saying, "One cannot help enjoying oneself and feeling happy while staying with you, uncle." The first question that Tim asks, while still on the platform, 28 32 36

is where Old Major is. Old Major is the name of one of the horses. How jolly it is to see Old Major again! and then Warner is there too! They see that the new dog is there too. They had not seen it yet.
 4 Its name is Rover. They don't spend much time in waiting now. They get the most necessary part of their luggage in the carriage and off they go. Beesley will come out after dinner to take the other boxes in his cart. It takes them twenty minutes to drive home. The
 8 girls see them coming; they are standing in front of the house, waving their handkerchiefs to them. Bob gets down to open the gate for the carriage to go through. I'm sure they will all feel happy now.

Grammar Lesson.

12 1. 3pf. u. 3perf. von to be: it **was** an unusually difficult piece 30,30; there **were** so many people 24,32; we've [= we **have**] hardly **been** out since . . . 30,32. Gr. § 77.

2. Passive: a) it **was erected** by the English nation 27,15, — b) a
 16 narrow escape from **getting kept in** 30,25, it's **getting bound** 18,1, it **got spilt** 20,32; much shall be required (joll.. werden) 2,36; Gr. 81 a, b.

3. Future and Conditional tenses: I hope you **will enjoy** your holidays with us — I am sure I **shall** 34,34. — He will not be late this time
 20 14,14. — Shall you come? 30,35. — I should have thought 30,21. — He would give you leave 21,3. [§ 69 c. 69 f. 74. 81 c].

First Future a) affirmatively: I shall ~, you (he) will ~: we shall ~, you (they) will ~ — b) interrogatively: shall I ~? **shall you ~?**
 24 will he ~? shall we ~? **shall you ~?** will they ~?

First Conditional a) affirm.: I should ~, you (he) would ~; we should ~, you (they) would ~ — b) interr.: should I ~? **should you ~?** would he ~? should we ~? **should you ~?** would they ~?

28 4. Where **there is** a will, there is a way 2,20. **There are** the girls 35,7. — There is, there are da ist, da find, es gibt, es ist, es find [Gr. § 83 u. 21.]. Is there? Are there? Is there not? Are there not? — There was, there were. There will be. There has (have) been.

32 5. from — of — by: It starts **from** the top **of** page 49 and goes to the last paragraph on page 58, three lines **from** the bottom 17,12; — in a bedroom **of** Charterhouse School 14,6; the big school-room **of** the boarding-house 17,8. — It was erected **by** the English nation 27,15.

36 **Werte:** to go **by** the Underground 27,24, **by** train 28,22; — they walk, **by** Waterloo Bridge, to Charing Cross 26,10.

Exercise: 1. Write out — interrogatively, negatively, affirmatively —

the 2nd plur. of the First Future and the Second Conditional Active and Passive of the verb To see. — 2. Conjugate: a) I was kept in (I got kept in) for not having got home in time; — I did not get kept in (I was not kept in) for being late; — I have hardly been out this 4 last week; — I remember my narrow escape from getting (from being) kept in for being eight minutes late? (for not having done my lesson). — b) affirmatively and neg. the fut. act., the pres. and future tenses passive, of: I call my friend; I call him quickly. — c) the past, 8 perf., and future tenses (interr., neg., affirm.) of: there is much jam in my pot; there are many horses in our place. — d) I am at work now; I have been at work this morning (this week, these last three weeks, the whole of this term); I was at work yesterday; I shall be at work 12 to-morrow. — 3. Put the following sentences into the Plural of the Past, Perf., Pluperf., First Future, and Second Conditional (neg., interrog.): This monument is erected by the English nation. — The red book is getting bound. — 4. Put the passive form in the following sentences 16 (stating by whom the action is done, — who does the action): Bob does not see the sponge, Tim sees it. — 5. Which sentences of Narratives VI and VII can be turned into the two voices, the Active Voice and the Passive Voice?

SKETCH VIII.

Bob's First Letter.

20

Greenhill Park
New Barnet

Aug. 3. 09. 24

My dear Father,

Our holidays have just begun, and Uncle John has invited me to spend them with Tim. Our reports came yesterday, and I send you mine with this letter. I know it will be a great joy to you to hear that I did get a scholarship. I tried my very best not to be beaten, 28 but it was not so easy for me as several boys are better scholars than I am. I have done better in Latin than in Greek, which I find rather difficult as I am not clever at languages. I was top in History and Geography, chiefly because the geography was about the British Co- 32 lonies, and I am very fond of learning something about Australia. At all events both Tim and I have done so well that we are sure to get our remove, as we came out high in our Geometry Exam as well. So Uncle John has promised to give us a real treat and show us how to 36 throw a fly. There is a good trout stream not far from here. The day after to-morrow we are going for a cheap half-day excursion to Shake-

speare's country. We shall see Stratford-on-Avon and the ruins of Kenilworth Castle. As we leave Paddington about one o'clock, we shall take some sandwiches with us.

4 Last Friday Edith, the eldest daughter, Tim, and I went to Richmond to spend the week end with Mrs. Vaughan's sister. On Saturday we took a walk to Kew Gardens, and saw the wonderful hot-houses. The great palm house ever so many feet high was very inter-
8 esting, but not more so than the botanical museum where the woods from different trees are shown, some of them from Australia.

On the following Monday we came up to London to go to the Zoo. We did not go by steamer, but took the train to Camden Town
12 on the North London Railway, and then rode in two hansoms to the Zoo. There we saw the monkeys, lions, tigers, and bears, some black swans from Australia, and some foreign geese. We did not see the snakes nor anything in that part of the Gardens, as Miss Chambers
16 had to do some shopping. We left by the South Gate and went to Regent's Park Station on the Bakerloo tube. We got out at Oxford Circus, and Miss Chambers and Edith went to Peter Robinson's, where they bought some silk for blouses and a couple of nice looking
20 dark blue ties for Tim and me. We came home to such a fine meat tea that we had not any appetite left for supper. As it was wet that evening, we stopped indoors, and played a game of chess. The next day we came back to Barnet, and found that Uncle had also been
24 away. He had gone to Aldershot to see a new flying-machine, for he is much interested in aeroplanes and airships. There he met Captain Wilson, who is going out with his regiment to Pretoria in South Africa. We are going down to Portsmouth to see him off.

28 . Uncle has given each of us three books, and allowed us to choose for ourselves. We have chosen three novels and three other books: Kingsley's *Westward Ho.*; Wells, *Food for the Gods*; and Wilkie Collins, *The Woman in White*. The three other books are: Kingsley's
32 *Heroes*, Froude's *Oceana* and Macaulay's *Essays*.

Besides this Uncle has made me a present of a handsome box of mathematical instruments to help me with my geometrical drawing. This will be very useful to me, as I am to try for Sandhurst next summer.
36 Tim had a new silver watch given to him, because his got broken.

Hoping you are quite well

Your most affectionate son
Bob.

Eighth Narrative.

From the letter Bob is sending home to his father we learn that both Tim and Bob have got good reports. Bob stands high in Geometry, History, and Geography. He is not very clever at languages. In Latin 4 he is much better than in Greek. As they are sure to get their remove, and as Bob has given them all great joy by getting a scholarship, Mr. Vaughan has given the boys several real treats. He has taken them to Stratford-on-Avon to see Shakespeare's country and to Kenilworth Castle near Warwick. They then went with a week end ticket to Richmond to stay with Miss Chambers from Friday night to Tuesday afternoon. Richmond is a most beautiful place on the Thames, not far from Kew, where they went to see the splendid Palm-House 12 and the well-known Botanical Museum. Besides this Miss Chambers, who had to do some shopping at Peter Robinson's big place in Oxford Street, has taken them to London to spend part of the afternoon at the Zoo. Mr. Vaughan has also promised them three books each and 16 has given Bob a box of mathematical instruments. I am sure Bob will like to have it, as it will help him in his geometrical drawing, which he must know at Sandhurst. We also learn that Mr. V. is much interested in flying-machines. He will probably have seen Blériot's aeroplane, 20 who, in July 1909, crossed the English Channel and got down at Dover, and I suppose he will also have heard of Zeppelin's big airship. In a few days Mr. V. will drive the boys down to a stream with some good trout in it. He will show them how to catch trout by throwing a fly. 24 They will drive there in the dog-cart. A dog-cart is a one-horse carriage, very light and open. I hope they will have a good time of it.

Grammar Lesson.

1. Learn the three infinitival forms of the verb [die drei infiniten Verbalformen, § 69 a. § 69 f. § 74. § 81 b.]: the Participle [Present Part., Past Part.], the Infinitive [Present Inf., Perfect Inf.], the Gerund [Pres. G., Past G.].

2. Progressive form. Das Present participle (calling, speaking, having, being; siehe sleeping 9, s) dient in Verbindung mit dem Hilfsverb to be 32 zu einer besonderen, überaus gebräuchlichen, umschreibenden Konjugationsform [§ 76], die in allen Zeiten beider Zustandsformen (Aktiv und Passiv), am häufigsten im Präsens und 3pf. vorkommt: der sogen. progressiven Form [§ 79]: I am coming 15, s; — are you waiting? 27, s; — we are slackening 34, 2s; — 36 some of us are going 20, 34; — mine is getting bound [getting ist Aktiv intransitiv; aber getting bound hat passiven Sinn = is being bound] 18, 1.

3. Gerund. Der Form nach mit dem Present participle übereinstimmend, syntaktisch aber grundverschieden, ist das Gerund [§ 69 f. § 74. § 81 b.], eine — große Kürze des Ausdrucks ermöglichende, sehr bequeme — Verbalform, die auch substantivischen

4 Charakter haben kann [§ 89]. Die bisher vorgekommenen Beispiele zeigen es:

1. als Bestandteil zusammengesetzter Substantive: reading exercise, boarding-house, dining-hall. Merke: reading-book, dining-room.

2. im Satzzusammenhange:

8 a) ohne vorangegangene Präposition:

α) als Nominativ: It is not much good worrying 30,33.

β) als Affektivobjekt abhängig von einem Verbum: I do like skating 27,13; — the boys stop talking 17,19; — finished doing 17,16; —

12 would you mind passing the milk 20,25; — one cannot help enjoying oneself 35,36.

b) abhängig von einer Präposition:

α) zur Ergänzung eines Substantivs: a narrow escape from 16 getting kept in 30,25.

β) als adverbiale Bestimmung im Sinne eines Nebensatzes der Zeit: the train is slackening on coming into the station 35,29 [im Sinne eines temporalen Adverbialsatzes],

20 des Grundes: I was kept in for being late 37,4 [kausaler Adverbialsatz], der Absicht, des Zweckes: ready for going home 31,20 [finaler Adverbialsatz], der Art und Weise: how to catch trout by throwing a fly 39,24; — the boy makes a mistake in spelling the Latin word 19,11; — we will spend 24 the afternoon in looking over the museums 27,25 [modaler Adverbialsatz].

4. I am going a) in eigentlicher Bedeutung = ich gehe: Some of us are going to town 20,34; — b) in übertragener (abgeschwächter) Bedeutung: I am going to = ich will, ich habe die Absicht: I am just going to brush my 28 hair 15,5. — „Ich will“ heißt auch „I want to“: They want to go to Hyde Park; they do not want to walk, they do not wish to take a motor bus; they are going to take a horse bus 27,28.

Merke: **I am going to** und **I want to** sind sehr gebräuchlich im Sinne 32 von „**ich will**“.

5. to get = 1. transitiv.

a) erhalten, bekommen, (Umgangssprache: kriegen): Jackson, have you got your ticket [hast du schon eine Fahrkarte von mir bekommen]? 24,19; 36 I badly want to get a scholarship 30,28; — in der Umgangssprache oft pleonastisch: I've still got my English repetition to learn 17,15; — I've got to copy it out 17,17; — I have got some money left.

b) besorgen, beschaffen, bereiten, machen: get the boxes ready 30,35. — I have not got what you ask for just now; but I can soon get it for you. — You might get me my jam 20,81.

2. intransitiv.

a) gelangen, kommen: they get into a carriage 24,20; — they get to Barnet about twelve 35,21; — Australia is rather too far off to get to 34,23; — yes, you may drive, if you won't get into trouble 35,3.

b) werden α) mit einem Adjektiv: to get ready 18,6.

β) mit einem Partiz. Perf. (§ 81 a): get dressed 14,11; — it got spilt 20,32; — a narrow escape from getting kept in 30,25.

3. verbunden mit Adverbien oder Präpositionen.

a) transitiv: Tim, have you got all the luggage in? 34,36.

b) intransitiv: they open the door and get out 34,28; — he gets out of bed 14,15; — get up 14,8; — get up outside 27,2; — we get down 27,10.

6. to do als Vertreter oder zur Befestigung eines vorangegangenen Verbs, besonders in Erwiderungen nach einem Fragesatze. Ähnlich I have, I am, I can, I shall usw. (§ 73 A.): Do you remember...? I **do** 30,25. — This word does not mean "oak"? does it? 17,24. — Parker rings the bell loud enough? does he not? 14,8. — I badly want to get a scholarship. If I did not [get one], I should not come back 30,28. — Did you never go by the Underground? No, sir, I never **did** 28,24. — I wish I had done it. I am glad I **have** 17,15. — Jackson, have you got your ticket? Yes, sir, I **have** 24,20. — Have you forgotten what the Doctor said? No, I **have not** 14,14. — Are you coming, Bob? No, I **am not** 20,36. — Can anybody tell me what that building is? Yes, I **can** 25,3. — I hope you will enjoy your holidays. I **am sure**, I **shall** 34,34.

7. much viel vor einem *sing.*; many viele vor einem *plural*: **much** time — how much money 31,3; — **many** mistakes 30,29. — a little ein wenig, etwas; a few einige wenige, ein paar; few wenige: — **a little** later 27,23; after **a few** minutes 15,4; Jackson had equally **few** mistakes 30,31. Gr. § 50 A. 2.

8. Orthographische Eigentümlichkeiten:

a) -es, nicht -s schreibt man: α) nach auslautendem Zischlaut, dem nicht noch stummes e folgt (bei Verben wie bei Substantiven 8,32): he brushes, he passes, he fetches, he washes, he wishes . . . glass glasses, (omni)bus (omni)buses, brush brushes, box boxes, sandwich sandwiches —

β) nach o, dem ein Konsonant vorangeht: does, goes, — heroes.

b) Statt y, dem ein Konsonant vorangeht, schreibt man

1. ie vor -s: colonies (colony); he copies (to copy);

2. i vor -ed, -er, -est: tried (to try) — dirtier, dirtiest (dirty) — uglier, ugliest (ugly) — funnier, funniest (funny) — sorrier, sorriest (sorry) — happier, happiest (happy).

4 c) Stummes e fällt aus vor vokalisch beginnender Beugungs-
endung: waking, coming, trifled, arrived . . . , later, latest, larger, closer,
finer, nicer;

d) -ing duldet vor sich weder stummes e, das ausfällt, noch i, das
8 in y verwandelt wird: leaving, arriving, — lying (von to lie liegen);

e) Einfacher Endfononant wird verdoppelt vor -ed, -er, -est, -ing

α) ohne Rücksicht auf die Betonung bei den Verben auf -l, -p, -t,
wenn diesem -l, -p, -t ein durch einen einzigen Buchstaben bezeichneter —
12 einfacher oder diphthongischer — Vokal vorangeht: to travel: travelled, tra-
velling (auch traveller Reisender; aber natürlich he travels mit einem l). — to patrol
die Runde machen: patrolled, patrolling. — to stop: stopped, stopping —
to permit erlauben: permitted, permitting.

β) bei den Verben auf -r, wenn diesem (einfachen) -r ein durch
einen einzigen Buchstaben bezeichneter betonter Vokal vorangeht:
to prefer (vorziehen): preferred, preferring (aber he prefers) — aber nicht to
offer (anbieten): offered, offering.

γ) bei allen übrigen Wörtern, deren einfachem Endfononanten
ein einfacher, kurzer — durch einen einzigen Buchstaben bezeichneter —
betonter Vokal vorangeht: to beg: begged, begging (beggar Bettler; he
begs) — to rub: rubbed, rubbing (rubs) — to run: running (he runs); — big:
24 bigger, biggest; — hot: hotter, hottest; — glad: gladder, gladdest.

Exercise: a) Write out the principal parts, the present participle,
and the 3rd si. pres. ind. of the verbs occurring in Sketches VI, VII, VIII. —

b) Conjugate (the first of the following sentences in the first pers., the second in
28 the 2nd pers., the third in the 3rd pers. si., &c): I do not spend too much time in
looking over these books now. — I like skating, I do like it. — I am
washing, dressing, and getting ready for study now. — I got up when
my school-chum was still sleeping. — I was copying my Greek paper
32 when the master called me to his desk. — I was waiting outside the
museum while the other boys were looking over the many rooms. —
I am glad to know my father is coming to meet me at the station. —
I am going to leave Friday afternoon with a week end ticket; I shall
36 stay away till Tuesday morning. — I am sorry I have not finished
copying out my Latin repetition. — I am sure I shall enjoy my half-
holiday at my uncle's place this afternoon. — I hope I shall have many

of my friends seeing me off when I am leaving. — I am glad to learn there will be much walking done in our week end excursion.

SKETCH IX.

Eighth Dialogue.

At Portsmouth (seaport and great naval station north-east of the Isle of Wight).
At Waterloo Station. Mr. Vaughan and the boys are ready to go down to P.
 by the 10.25 a. m.

Bob. Well, Tim, I think, we ought to know this place now. 4

Tim. Yes, I think so. We start from this platform, father, in five minutes. 8

Bob (as they are passing through a tunnel, after a run of about an hour and a quarter). I'm glad we don't get out at the next station. 12

Tim. No, we don't want to go back to school just yet.

Mr. Vaughan. There's Haslemere, where Tennyson, the great poet, used to live. We're more than half way now.

Bob (an hour later). We must be pretty well there. Yes, we're stopping. 16

Mr. V. (not seeing Captain Wilson). Well, the Captain isn't here as he promised; so, Tim, take this card to the Star and Garter and ask where Captain Wilson has gone. We'll wait here under the railway-bridge. You know the way? 20

Tim (putting the card in his pocket-book). Yes, but there is the Captain coming to meet us.

Captain Wilson. How do you do, Vaughan? I am sorry I'm late, I have just seen my wife off. Have you been waiting long? 24

Mr. V. Oh, no; we've just come, and I've brought the young ones down to see you before you go.

Capt. W. Just in time. The tender's about to go out to the troop-ship now, and we'll all go together. We're on board the 'Tyne', and the 'Cape of Good Hope' sails with us. They are lying side by side now. 28

Bob. Shall we be allowed to go on board the man-of-war?

Capt. W. Yes, and perhaps you'll see the men going through their practice with the big guns, which is worth seeing. 32

Mr. V. After we've come back we've got permission to look over the dockyards. But before going there we shall have to get something to eat first, for walking about in the fresh sea-air will have made us all very hungry. We shall all be ready for a good meal. I hope you 36
 will have fair weather but not too warm, and a pleasant voyage, Wilson.

Capt. W. Thanks. Now let's go. There, boys, that's where a once famous ship lies. Can you tell me what it is called?

Bob. As if anybody wouldn't know that. Nelson's flagship at the battle of Trafalgar, the Victory, on which he died. I once saw a box made out of one of her masts.

Ninth Narrative.

We find Mr. Vaughan and the boys at a place which we have learned to know well by this time. It is Waterloo Station. Mr. Vaughan is going to take the boys to Portsmouth to see the fine ships and to say good-bye to his friend Captain Wilson, who knows Bob's father well. Portsmouth is in Hampshire, north-east of the Isle of Wight. Portsmouth in Hampshire, Devonport [which is part of Plymouth] in Devonshire, and Chatham in Kent are the greatest naval stations in England. Chatham is on the Medway, not far from the place where that river meets the Thames. Dover and Rosyth (in the Firth of Forth) are other great naval stations in the German Ocean. In going down to Portsmouth on the London and South Western the boys have to pass Haslemere, the place where the great poet Tennyson used to live. It takes them nearly three hours to get to Portsmouth. On getting out of the station they see Captain Wilson coming to meet them. They are just in time for the tender which is going out to the Tyne. The "Tyne" is the troop-ship Captain Wilson is sailing on. So they go on board the tender which will take them to the "Cape of Good Hope", the big man-of-war, where we hope they will see the men going through their practice with the big guns. After they have come back from the big ships, they will have something to eat first and then go and spend a few hours in the Dockyards. They all thank Captain Wilson and wish him fair weather and a pleasant voyage.

Grammar Lesson.

a) Modale Hilfsverben (defektiv = mangelhaft, unvollständig. § 73).

1. I **can** ich kann: I can, you can. Can you tell me? Can anybody tell me? He can. Can he? We can. Can we? They can. Can they? they can't = they cannot. Can they not? Can't you = Can you not? I can't = I cannot. I couldn't = I could not. Couldn't he = could he not?

2. I **may** ich mag, darf, kann: Please, sir, may I have a pen? — He may. May he? Uncle said we **might** each of us choose three books.

3. I **shall** ~ ich werde, you shall ~ du sollst, he shall ~ er soll; we shall

~ wir werden, you shall ~ ihr sollst, they shall ~ sie sollen. — Shall we take a taxi? Shall we be allowed? We shan't = we shall not. I shouldn't = I should not. Shouldn't I? = should I not? — I should like to know English well. I should like to = ich würde liebén zu = ich möchte gern. 4 I should have thought you might have said . . . § 69 c. f. 74. 81 b. 75 b.

4. I **will**, ich will, beim Futur „werden“: I **will not** be late again 14,14; — **will you tell** me how it is spelt? 17,25. Now then, boys, **we will go** by the Underground 27,24. Will he? He will. He won't = he will 8 not. Wouldn't he = would he not? Vgl. 36, 18—27.

5. I **must**, ich muß: we must take a cab. You must speak more distinctly. He must speak louder. Must he not?

6. I **ought to**, ich sollte (ich müßte doch eigentlich): we ought to know 12 this place now 43,s. — I ought to go up to the station to see my uncle off. — You ought to be more punctual, to speak more distinctly, to speak louder. — Ought you not to go and see your aunt to thank her for the nice trip she gave you? Of course, I ought, and I shall do so to-morrow. 16

b) Adverbien (§ 90).

1. Ursprüngliche: a) einfache: here, there, where, now, then, once, again, away, back, not, too, how, yet, up, down, off, in, out, over, never; — b) zusammengesetzte: outside, inside, indoors, — to-day, yesterday, 20 to-morrow — the day before yesterday, the day after to-morrow.

2. Abgeleitete Adverbien (nur die Positive)

a) mit dem Adjektiv übereinstimmende

α) einzelne (oft nur in besonderen Wendungen): loud, fast, straight, 24 hard, little, much, very . . .

β) die der Adjektive auf -ly: jolly, only (nur, einzig).

b) die mit Anhängung von -ly gebildet: slowly, quickly, hardly, badly, barely, quietly, nearly, chiefly, awfully, carefully, distinctly. 28

3. Komparative von Adverbien: rather, later, better, more, — more distinctly, more slowly, more quickly.

4. Superlative von Adverbien: best, most, — most distinctly.

5. „gern“ = I am fond of + gerund, — I like to + infinitive: I am very 32 fond of learning something about Australia 37,33; — I should like to learn something more about it.

c) Adverbien in Verbindung mit Verben, die somit einen bestimmten Begriff erhalten, vgl. die „trennbar zusammengesetzten Zeitwörter“ im Deutschen, 36 wie „aufstehen“, „hinsetzen“, „ablassen“, „aufgeben“, „ausgehen“, „überlesen“: to leave off, to get up, to put up = to erect (27,15; 27,18), to pick up, to

stand up, to sit down, to get down, to get out, to get in, to pick out, to fill in, to call over, to look over, § 116 c.

d) „wie“ = 1. **how**: that's how it is every morning 14,11; —
 4 2. **as**: as many can tell 3,14; — 3. = **what** in der Lebensart: **what do you call it?** 27,30; **what is it called?** 19,19; what (are they, was it, were they, will it [they] be, has it been, have they been) called? (Gr. § 102).

e) „noch“ = **still** 14,10 — not **yet** 17,16 — only one **more** station
 8 24,26; **another** 30,18 — **left** = noch (übrig) 33,8, 40,28;

f) still = 1. *adj.*: *fiill* 27,6 — 2. *adv.*: noch, immer noch 14,10 —
 3. *conj.*: jedoch 30,21;

g) too *adv.* = 1. zu, allzu: too hot 20,26; — 2. auch: and there's
 12 Rover, the dog, too 34,32. — „Weder noch“ = not . . . either: and I do not suppose you have got much either 31,4.

Exercise: a) Read: Our work is hard now; it was hard yesterday; it will be hard to-morrow; it has been very h. this morning (this week);
 16 — b) put the preceding sentence into the interr.-neg. form; — c) read: We work hard now; we worked hard yesterday; we shall work h. to-morrow; we have worked very h. this morning; — d) turn the preceding sentence into the interrog.; — e) into the progressive form, affirmatively
 20 and interrog.-negatively, using the 2nd and 3rd persons plural instead of the 1st plural. — f) change the following sentences so as to get a past tense: He is a careful scholar now and a very good boy indeed; he works very well, he speaks and reads distinctly and writes most beautifully. —
 24 I have bad luck now; I badly want my uncle to make me a present of two (shillings) and sixpence, I do not find him. — We are having a quick trip now; we are travelling very fast and most quickly indeed. — Your brother is an elegant swell now; he dresses most elegantly. — The
 28 weather is fine now; we enjoy our trip much, we enjoy it most perfectly. — g) Change the following sentences so as to have an adverb instead of an adjective [find the adverb]: My copy is bad; I did it . . . — He is a careful writer; he writes . . . — Your friend is a good speaker; he . . . —
 32 Tim was not a slow driver; he did not . . . — h) Conjugate: I am very fond of reading when I have done working. — I badly want one who will have a quick drive with me — I hardly have time to go out as I have to work hard now; — i) Pick out — from Sketches VII, VIII, IX —
 36 all the places (stating page and line) and learn by heart the passages in full where we have seen: to get, to go, to walk, to take, to do.

SKETCH X.
Bob's Second Letter.

Greenhill Park
New Barnet
Sep. 1st 1909.

My dear Father,

I am writing to you
another letter, although I know well
that you will not have got the other
yet which I wrote about a month ago. 8
We have had such a very jolly time.
We have made no little progress
in fly-fishing, & the old pool near the
stile, which Uncle says you know so 12
well, has provided us with plenty of
capital sport. We have also had a good
deal of tennis & an occasional
game of cricket. We have also been 16
to Portsmouth to see Captain Wilson;
he showed us over the Cape of Good

Hope as well. There we heard the ship's band play. Afterwards we went to the Dockyards & saw a ship on the stocks which will cost over £2,000,000 when finished.

Two weeks ago Jim's elder brother, Alfred, who is an undergrad at Oxford, came home from Germany, where he has been spending the last two months learning German. He has told us a lot about his life at Oxford. Last term he rowed in his College eight, which was Head of the River in the summer races, & so he has the right to keep his car. As his College only sent a four to Stanley, he was not wanted & went abroad. At Lord's Berkeley kept up the reputation of your old school by making a large score in the Varsity Cricket match, as you will see from the newspaper which I have posted to you. Alfred is also a great speaker at the Union

Debalis. He has brought his tutor, Mr. Matheson, with him, who has set us to work as well. Every day we have to write a short composition & I send you in this very heavy letter some that we have written, as I know that you would much like to see them.

Now there are only three weeks more before school begins. I hope you will be at home, back from the sheep-run, when this letter reaches Sydney. Did you find it quite well? What sort of weather have you had this year? I hope there was no scarcity of water during the dry season. Shall you be coming to England next year?

Your affectionate son
Bob.

Tenth Narrative.

As it takes a little more than forty days for a ship to go from England to Australia, Bob's first letter which he wrote on Aug. 3rd will not have got to his father yet at the time when he is sending off his second. He tells his father of all the fine treats Mr. Vaughan has given them, how they made much progress in fly-fishing, which provided them with much trout, which they caught in a quiet pool of the stream. He tells his father how they went on board the 'Tyne' and the 'Cape of Good Hope' in Portsmouth, and how they saw in the dockyards there a ship that will cost more than £ 2,000,000. We also learn that Tim has got an elder brother, who is an undergraduate at Oxford. Having spent two months of his holidays in Germany, he now comes home to do some work with Mr. Matheson, his tutor. Young Mr. Alfred Vaughan is a great speaker at the Students' Debates in Oxford. He is also a good oar, and rowed in his College Eight in the summer races. This Eight was the head boat on the river. So he keeps the oar he rowed with and has it in his rooms at Oxford. There are the names of all the men who rowed with him in the Eight written on it. It is also written there how heavy each man was at the time when they rowed. — Bob also speaks of Berkeley, an old boy from Charterhouse, who is at Cambridge now and played in the University Cricket Match. Berkeley made a lot of runs off the Oxford men and so kept up the reputation of Charterhouse Cricket. Besides the University Cricket Match there is a University Boat-race of the two Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which is rowed every year in March or April from Putney to Mortlake on the Thames. — Bob asks how his brother Fred is, who has been seeing after the sheep on the sheep-run. He hopes there has not been too much dry weather so that the sheep have found enough to eat. — Bob tells his father that Mr. Matheson has set them to work, making them write a short composition every day. Some of these he sends to his father with this letter, because he thinks his father will like to read them, as there is something about Australia and English history in them. I know that the first of their compositions is to be on Queen Victoria and William of Prussia. It must be very nice to read. It is Tim who wrote it. The second and third compositions are by Bob. One is about America, and the other about Australia.

Conversation. Are you an English boy? No, sir, I am not; I am a German boy. We are German boys. — How long have you been studying English? We have been studying English (we have studied it) five months (these last five months). — Where is Bobs'

father? In Australia. — Where are you? In Germany. At what place in Germany? — Who am I? You are the English Master. — Are you not a Master? No, sir; I am a student.

Grammar Lesson: Repetition and Summary.

A. Lautlehre.

1. Pronunciation. 1. Write out — from Sketches IX and X —, spell (in giving to the English letters their English names), and pronounce words with the following

a) vowel-sounds: *ɔ, v, æ* — *ēī, īī — ēar, īar*; (vgl. 4,14; 6,18).

b) semi-vowels (semi-vocalic-consonants): *ū, hū, j* (6,27—7,2).

c) consonants: *z, ž, dž — ǧ, ǧ* (8,12; 10,27—11,9).

d) final consonants: *b, d, g, ŋ* (7,8; 8,18).

e) words with: *l* (5,24; 11,24).

2. Repeat the pronunciation of: — a) final *-es* (or *'s*) after a hissing-sound 8,32; — b) final *-ed* (29,31).

2. Orthography or Spelling: a) Orthographical peculiarities 41,31; —

b) Pick out — from Sketch X — and put together after their sounds words with *r* (5,31), *ea, ou, u, a*; — c) Write out — from Sketches VII, VIII, IX — words which have silent (11,16) the consonants: *gh, k, l, p, w*;

d) Repeat the pronunciation of the following words *α)* cap, cab, am, bed, Tim, not, but; — *β)* lady, he, be, I, my, go, Ro-man, mu-se-um — cape, name, five, time, note, home — table, to trifle. Vorstehende Beispiele zeigen die im Englischen — meist nur für einsilbige Wörter — geltende

Sejeregel: Die Buchstaben *a, e, i (y), o, u* werden

α) in geschlossen (d. h. auf einen Konsonanten ausgehenden) Silben (closed syllables) kurz (d. h. wie *æ, e, i, ɔ, u*),

β) in offen (d. h. auf einen Vokal ausgehenden) Silben (open syllables) mit ihrem — langen diphthongischen — alphabetischen Laute (d. h. so wie sie im Alphabet heißen) ausgesprochen.

Als offen gelten auch diejenigen Silben, in denen dem Vokal ein einfacher Konsonant mit stummem *e* (oder einfacher Konsonant vor *-le, -re*) folgt.

To this rule there are numerous exceptions: have, give, come, do, etc.

B. Wortlehre.

3. Wortklassen oder Redeteile (Parts of Speech).

There are ten parts of speech in English: the Article¹⁾ — the Noun (or Substantive) — the Pronoun — the Adjective — the Numeral — the Verb — the Adverb — the Preposition — the Conjunction — the Interjection.

¹⁾ Der bestimmte Artikel war ursprünglich ein Demonstrativpronomen, der unbestimmte ein Numerales. Seitdem aber die Bedeutung des Artikels so abgeschwächt worden ist, daß er nicht mehr als adjektivisches Attribut angesehen werden kann, muß der Artikel als neue selbständige Wortklasse gelten; vgl. 19,29; 19,31 und Gramm. § 8 und 9.

4. Von diesen Wortklassen sind veränderlich — können flektiert werden: das Substantiv, das Adjektiv, das Pronomen, das Zahlwort und das Verb.

Auch die der Form nach mit dem Adjektiv übereinstimmenden Adverbien (§ 94a) können flektiert werden: sie sind wie die Adjektive der Steigerung (Komparation auf -er, est) fähig (31,24).

Die Lehre von den Formveränderungen des Substantivs, des Adjektivs, des Pronomens, des Zahlworts, des Verbs und des Adverbs heißt Formen- oder Flexionslehre (accidence).

5. Substantives: Plural of Nouns 21,30; -es (not -s) 41,32; plurals with vowel-change man men, child children, foot feet, goose geese 21,32; merke: penny pence. — Declension of Nouns 21,36. — Gender of Nouns 19,33.

12 Pronouns 32,5—33,8; some — any, no — not any 32,36.

Adjectives: 31,24; when used attributively must be followed by a noun or by the indefinite pronouns *one, ones* 32,1; — much, many 41,27. — Degrees of comparison 31,25: the positive, the comparative, the superlative —
16 expressed in three manners: — 1. by the addition of the suffixes -er, -est; —
2. by the use of the adverbs *more, most*; — 3. in the case of a few adjectives by irregular changes (31,35).

Numerals § 58: Cardinal numbers 10, 18; Ordinal numbers
20 (1st .. 10th);

Verbs: Conjugation 8,24; 13,2; 16,12—32; § 68, 69; interrogative conjugation 16,28; 20,3; 23,4—6; three infinitival forms 39,28; progressive form 39,31; gerund 40,1; compound verbs 45,35; — to get 40,33; to do 41,15;
24 I am going to 40,25—32.

Strong Verbs (29,7): I (§ 71) to ride — to draw — to fly — to eat — to break — to choose — to lie — to beat; — II (§ 71): to meet — to understand — to set.

28 **Weak Verbs** (29,14) § 70 c. to add — to allow — to comb — to depend — to enjoy — to fill — to help — to hiss — to interest — to miss — to mix — to need — to offer — to open — to post — to reach — to remember — to row — to sail — to slacken — to stay.

32 to close — to derive — to die — to escape — to excite — to hope — to invite — to like — to live — to paraphrase — to promise — to pronounce — to provide — to state — to suppose — to wave.

to hurry — to study — to try — to worry — to occur — to patrol
36 — to permit — to shop — to keep — to buy.

Irregular Verbs (Verbs with a mixed conjugation) 29,35.

Auxiliary Verbs (§ 73): to have, to be; Auxiliary verbs of mood (defective verbs) 44,30.

40 Adverbs: 45,17; adverbs having the form of adjectives 45,23; comparison of adverbs 45,29; loud, louder, loudest; — quietly, more (most) quietly —

well, better, best; — the negation “not” 20,1; no paraphrase with to do when “never” is the negation 20,5.

Zur Flexionslehre gehört auch die Wortbildungslehre. — Die Lehre von den Wortgefügen behandelt die Syntax (syntax). 4

6. Wortbildungslehre (Word-formation). There are three ways in which one word is formed from another word: — a) by a change within the word (**innere Wortbildung**) as: to sing *singen*, song *Lied* — wit *Witz*, wise *weise* — to speak *sprechen*, speech *Sprache* — hot *heiß*, heat *Hitze* — to sit *sitzen*, to set *setzen* . . . 8
b) by composition (**Wortzusammensetzung**) — c) by derivation (**Wortableitung**).

7. Compounds: bedroom, steamboat, seaport, flagship, dockyard, airship. plum-pudding, boarding-house, school-room, school-chum, desk-neighbour, dining-hall, dining-room, jam-pot, carriage-window, fly-fishing, dog-cart, troop- 12 ship, sea-air, man-of-war, sheep-run, boat-race, hissing-sound.

evening prayers, a history lesson, Godalming Station, Waterloo Bridge, Trafalgar Square, morning bell, meat tea, week end ticket, half-day excursion, Kew Gardens, University Cricket Match, a steamboat service, a London County 16 Council steamboat, the London County Council Steamboat Service.

to look over, to stand up, to go in, to go out, to go away, to come in, to come back, to get in, to get out, to get up, to get down, to leave off, etc.,
a nice dark blue tie. 20

Compound words are in English sometimes written in one word, sometimes in two (or more) words. When written in two (or more) words, they are not always united by a hyphen (-).

Kennzeichen eines Kompositums: nur einer der Kompositionsteile hat 24 starke Betonung, nur einer hat Flexion.

Regel: Den Hauptton hat das Bestimmungswort (the determinative word) — das meist an erster Stelle steht —; das Grundwort (the determined word, or the base) hat höchstens einen Nebenton. 28

Jedoch finden sich auch Beispiele von schwebender Betonung (level stress) — z. B. dark blue — oder von steigender (rising) Betonung — z. B. man-of-war — Trafalgar Square, London Bridge, Waterloo Bridge, Charing Cross, Rotten Row, Marble Arch, Hyde Park Corner, Oxford Circus —; hingegen haben 32 fallende (falling) Betonung die Namen mit street: Oxford Street.

8. Derivatives¹⁾. Bisher vorgekommene Präfixe germanischen Ursprungs: away, again, believe, before, besides, forget, mistake, unusual, without — afternoon, already, indoors, inside, outside, overlook, underground, undergraduate. 36

Prefixes of French (or Romanic) origin: abbreviation, absent, adjective, accident, affectionate, arrive, biscuit, compound, depend, distinctly, enjoy, invite, non-flexional, object, perfect, permit, promise, pronoun, remember, re-translate, return, translate. 40

Of Greek origin: cathedral, syntax, syllable.

¹⁾ This word is a compound of . . . , is composed of . . .

This word is a derivative of . . . , is derived from . . .

This word is related to, cognate with, connected with . . . , belongs to the same family (group) of words as . . .

Suffixes of Germanic origin: beggar, wisdom, writer, pudding, careful, English, British, careless — badly, talk, walk.

Romanic suffixes: luggage, hotel, captain, servant, student, money, article, action, monument, balloon finish. Merke: affectionate (*è*), to conjugate (*è*). Das Suffix -ate lautet *èt* in Verben, sonst *et* (*è*).

Greek suffixes: organism, organist, organize.

9. Unter Derivation versteht der Engländer nicht bloß 'Ableitung' ver- mittels Vor- oder Nachsilbe' (the making of a new word by the addition of some prefix or suffix), sondern überhaupt jede ohne Zusammensetzung oder innere Wortbildung (change) zustandgekommene Neubildung. Besonders rechnet er zur derivation:

1. die — in der Umgangssprache sehr häufige — Verwendung gewisser Verben als Substantive: to have a talk (a walk, a drive, a wash, a swim, a catch, a smoke, an escape u. viele a.) = to talk (to walk, to drive, to wash, to swim schwimmen, to catch, to smoke rauchen, to escape ent[schlüpfen];

2. 'Shortening' = Wortverkürzung:

a) tram = tramway; bus = omnibus; taxi = taxi-cab für taximeter-cab; photo = photograph Photographie; gent = gentleman u. sehr viele a. Die vier ersten dieser Beispiele gelten noch als nicht sehr vornehm, werden aber trotzdem fast allgemein gebraucht; gent ist unsein. — Andere Verkürzungen, die nicht mehr als solche empfunden werden, haben Sonderbedeutungen entwickelt: sport „kraftfördernde Belustigung im Freien“ neben disport „Belustigung, Zeitvertreib“, — cab „Droschke“ neben cabriolet (*kabriolet*) „Kabriolett“ — Miss (vor dem Familiennamen) „Fräulein“ neben Mrs. (read: *Missis*, nur vor dem Familiennamen) „Frau“, beide von mistress (*mistris*) „Herrin, Gebieterin“.

b) Eine im Englischen überaus häufige Art des 'Shortening' ist das Buchstabenwort, d. h. der Ersatz gewisser Wörter durch ihre Anfangsbuchstaben: an L. C. C. boat (read: *an el cee cee boat*) = a London County Council boat — he is a B. A. (read: *a bee a*), d. h. er hat auf der Universität den ersten akademischen Grad erworben: he has taken his degree, d. h. the degree of bachelor of arts, Baccalaureus Artium — the German Emperor is a D. C. L. (read: *a dee cee el*) = is a Doctor of Civil Law (doctor iuris civilis) — he is an M. P. (read: *an em pee*) = a Member of Parliament — it is a question of £ s. d. (read: *of el ess dee*) = of pounds, shillings, and pence = a question of money. Ähnlich werden a. m., p. m. (read: *ay em, pee em*) als Zusatz bei Zeitangaben nach der Uhr statt in the morning, in the afternoon sehr oft auch von Leuten gebraucht, welche von dem lateinischen Ursprung dieser Ausdrücke (ante meridiem, post meridiem) keine Ahnung haben.

10. The non-inflectional parts of speech (prepositions, conjunctions, interjections) are sometimes called 'Particles of Speech'.

Prepositions: 19,37 (§ 106): by, from 36,32; of, off, at, before, behind, after, with, without, in, into, for, about, besides, during, near, on, to, through, over, up, — out of, instead of, on board, up to, as far as, in front of, outside.

Conjunctions: and, also, not . . either, for, so; or, but, yet, still 46,10; that, if, whether, after, before, as, till, when, while, because, than; as if, though.

Interjections: hullo, hi, why, (I say, I see).

Zweiter Abschnitt. Einführung in die Schriftsprache.

COMPOSITION I.

The Royal Banquet at Windsor Castle.

4

Windsor Castle lying on the banks of the Thames, Osborne in the Isle of Wight, and Balmoral in Scotland were the three chief residences of Victoria Queen of England. After the death of the Queen, in January 1901, King Edward, who already possessed a country seat, to which he was much attached, at Sandringham, near King's Lynn on the Wash, gave Osborne House to the nation. While one portion of it, Osborne Cottage, was reserved as a residence for his sister, Princess Henry of Battenberg, the greater part was assigned to the Royal Naval College, for the junior naval cadets.

Windsor Castle has been a favourite residence of many of the kings of England since the Conquest. The town of Windsor is separated by the river Thames from Eton, which has been rendered famous by its college. Windsor Castle is one of the oldest and finest castles in England. It is more than 800 years ago since William the Conqueror bought a piece of land from the monks of Westminster, and began to build the first part of it. But its completion was long deferred, and since then many of the English kings have added to it. The last of the great changes was only finished in the reign of Queen Victoria at a cost of £ 900,000. This royal castle has given a welcome to many a royal guest, seen a great many splendid festivals, and witnessed many an historical event of great importance to England. Supposing that the old kings of England could have seen the splendour of the festival that was held there on the 7th of July 1891, they would have been greatly astonished. On that day Queen Victoria was entertaining her grandson, the Emperor William II. of Germany, the eldest son of her beloved eldest daughter, who had come to pay her a second visit. Which of the English kings had ever entertained at so ample a banquet in St. George's stately hall so powerful an Emperor? In whose power had it ever lain to display such stores of massive plate, or show to his guests the rich treasures of India? Each of the Queen's one hundred and fifty guests was served with a golden plate and eat his soup with a golden spoon. The Hall was lighted by long rows of candles in golden candlesticks, and not a single piece of the table service was of silver, while the cloths were made of the finest damask. On a side-board at one end of the hall were laid the Indian treasures referred to above, viz: the tiger's head of gold, weighing half a hundredweight,

with eyes, teeth and tusks of purest crystal. Then above this was the famous jewelled peacock and the no less striking jewelled umbrella, with the possession of which Indian tradition connects the rulership of India, and therefore according to Indian notions the Queen of England justly bears the title of Empress of India.

The Emperor only stayed four days at Windsor and then went to London and paid a visit to the City, where he was splendidly entertained by the Lord Mayor.

Since that date the Emperor has been several times in England on state or friendly visits to the king. On a recent occasion (in 1907) he received at Windsor a deputation from the University of Oxford, which had conferred on him the honorary degree of D. C. L. (Doctor of Civil Law).

COMPOSITION II.

Brooklyn Bridge.

The city of New York, the area of which in 1890 was forty-one and a half square miles or 26,500 acres, is situated upon an island formed by the East River and the Hudson, which is generally spoken of as the American Rhine. On the opposite shore of the latter river lies New Jersey, which was originally a settlement of the Swedes. It was taken from them by the Dutch of New Amsterdam, who in their turn had to surrender all their possessions to the Yankees of New England in 1664. It was they who called that colony New York, after the king's brother, James, Duke of York and Albany.

On the other side of the East River lies Brooklyn, the third largest town in the United States, with over 900,000 inhabitants and called the City of Churches. The traffic between New York proper and Brooklyn is very great, and for many years the river itself was the only connection between them, by means of its steam ferryboats, on which even long trains are still shipped and so carried down the river, which is here more than half a mile broad, round to New Jersey.

At last, a little more than forty years ago, it was resolved to build a bridge provided that a suitable design could be produced. At first it seemed as if the designs of Colonel Adams would be accepted; but afterwards Col. Roebling was chosen, an engineer of greater ability and longer experience, to whom the work was entrusted; for it was naturally too important an undertaking to be assigned to anybody but the first engineer of the day.

Col. Roebling was of German origin, being born at Mühlhausen (in the kingdom of Prussia) in 1806. But the work twice brought disaster to his family, both to his son and to himself. For no sooner were the plans perfected than the Colonel died, on the 22nd of July 1869, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. His death was caused by an injury to his

foot, which he had received while personally engaged in laying out the towers for the bridge. Six months later was the actual construction begun, under the direction of Col. Roebling's son Washington. But he too had the bad luck to be laid up with fever in 1872, and though so weak as only to be able to watch the work from his chair at the window of his room, he would sit there and endeavour to continue his superintendence without interruption. However a visit to Europe, which, through continual illness, he was forced to undertake twelve months later, sent him back to work again, as it were a new and a stronger man.

However difficult a task it was, at last the work was finished, — this greatest suspension bridge in the world ¹⁾. And what a wonderful impression it does make upon a European visitor, especially if he sees its electric lights by night, shining clear and bright as the stars, so high above the water, while on the other side the white torch of the mighty Statue of Liberty lightens up the harbour! What thousands of tons of steel and masonry had it required!

People hardly realize that it takes rather more than twenty minutes to walk across, as the whole length of the bridge is 5989 feet ²⁾. It is 85 feet wide and 135 feet above the high water level, so that the 20 largest steamers can easily pass beneath it. The central span between the towers is supported by four steel cables, each of which is $15\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter, and 1200 yards in length. The towers themselves are 270 feet high, and the Brooklyn tower, which is the smaller of the two, 24 contains 38,214 cubic yards of masonry.

There are two railway tracks, connected at the New York end with the "Elevated", whose cars convey the busy traveller conveniently to any part of the town, two roadways for carriages, and a path, 13 feet 28 wide, in the centre for foot-passengers. The total cost was £3,000,000, which is equal to about five times as many American dollars. Of this sum Brooklyn paid two thirds. The price of the real estate at both ends was \$4,000,000. It was $13\frac{1}{2}$ years constructing, from January 1870 32 to May 1883, and was opened for traffic for the first time on May 24th 1883, and now on the average 98,000 persons cross the bridge daily.

COMPOSITION III.

Leichhardt.

86

Nearly 140 years ago (in 1770) Captain Cook, on his first voyage round the world, visited the Eastern shores of Australia and dis-

¹⁾ This is no longer the case. A still greater bridge has been built over the Hudson, connecting Manhattan Island with the mainland.

²⁾ equal to 1825·39 (read: eighteen hundred and twenty-five, decimal point thirty-nine) metres, one English foot being 0·30479 (decimal three nought four seven nine) metre.

covered the strait which bears his name, and that between Australia and New Guinea. Australia, it is true, had been discovered before (as early as 1521) by the famous Portuguese sailor Ferdinand Magellan, but it had
 4 remained practically unknown to Europeans till the day of Cook's visit. The inland exploration, however, of this huge island, which is almost as large as Europe, did not begin till fifty more years had passed, when Sturt and Mitchell explored the S. E. district of the island, which is
 8 now divided between the colonies of Victoria and New South Wales.

Some twenty years later, in October 1844, an expedition started from Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, in a north-westerly direction for the Gulf of Carpentaria and for Port Essington; the latter point was
 12 arrived at after a journey in which much suffering was undergone and 3,000 miles traversed. It was one of the most fruitful journeys, because through it Queensland was opened up for colonisation. The leader of the expedition is still held in affectionate sad remembrance and is a great
 16 deal thought of by the Australians, and a touching poem has been written in his honour by Henry Kendall himself, the greatest of their poets.

His name was Ludwig Leichhardt; he was a German by birth, as he was born near Beeskow in the province of Brandenburg, in 1813.
 20 He went to school at Kottbus and afterwards became a student at the University of Berlin. Here he first intended to study Classics, but he formed a friendship with a rich Englishman, by whom he was persuaded to study Natural Science and Medicine; and he became such an ardent
 24 enthusiast in the cause of Science as to be willing to give up everything for its sake. He went with his English friend to Bristol, and from there to Sydney alone. Here he became a thorough Australian, a true citizen of his adopted country. But though he felt happy in his new home, he
 28 did not forget his German fatherland; for instance he says in his journal:

"As we proceeded on our journey through the burning plains, while the thoughts of all my companions were turned to our journey's end, events of an earlier date came into my mind, recollections of my
 32 parents and the other members of my family, and I imagined myself once more a schoolboy in my old German home."

On this expedition Dr. Leichhardt had with him six Europeans, two natives and an American negro, whom they afterwards left at
 36 Moreton Bay (near Brisbane). They took with them 15 horses, 16 oxen and provisions for 8 months, consisting of flour, tea, sugar, and salt. Their guns were chiefly relied on to provide them with such fresh meat as the country afforded, kangaroos, cassowaries, teals, and ducks. But
 40 such food had to be supplemented by the flesh of one of their horses, dried in the sun; for the temperature was generally very high, often 100° F.¹⁾ and more.

¹⁾ F = Fahrenheit. The zero of Fahrenheit's thermometer is fixed at the point at which the mercury stands when immersed in a mixture of snow and

The chief point of interest about this expedition was the night attack of the natives in June 1845. The party had retired two by two to their tents, which as usual were pitched not far from each other. Leichhardt happened to be sleeping by the camp fire, keeping himself warm in his rug, when he was aroused by a loud noise and a call for help. A shower of spears was thrown against the tents and towards the fire. Two Englishmen, Roper and Calvert, lay severely wounded within their tents, and a third, Gilbert, got killed as he was coming out of his, by a spear, which pierced his chest. The two Australians, however, soon loaded their guns, and after a few shots had been fired, the savages fled much frightened, leaving the naked body of one of their number behind. The many wounds of both his injured companions were then neatly dressed by Dr. Leichhardt. One of the barbed heads of the spears had to be forced right through Roper's arm and another extracted from Calvert's thigh, yet in spite of all this, thanks to Dr. Leichhardt's dexterity, so well were they taken care of that neither of them died. Gilbert was buried and a large fire kindled over his grave, that the natives might not find it and dig the body up. These incidents took place at Lat. 16° S., Long. 142° E.

After such a lucky escape, the party advanced as quickly as possible. With their scarcity of provision, there was danger in delay, yet but for a native, who knew a few words of broken English and acted as their guide, they might never have reached Port Essington in safety.

Leichhardt did not content himself with this expedition; he conceived the bold but highly dangerous project of crossing the continent from East to West. Nor did he feel discouraged when his first attempt failed. He started once more and has never been heard of since. Whether he and all who were with him were killed by the natives, or got drowned in a flood, or perished for want of food is a matter of great uncertainty. None of his party ever returned. After several fruitless expeditions had been sent out in search of him, and after all hope of his ever being found again had been given up, a statue was very properly erected to this heroic but unfortunate explorer by his new countrymen at Sydney.

Since Dr. Leichhardt disappeared, Australia has witnessed a wonderful development, new natural resources have been discovered, and new industries created. Five separate colonies have been established on the mainland, in addition to those in Tasmania and in the New

common salt. 100 degrees F = 37.77 Centigrade or 30.22 Réaumur. Fahrenheit's thermometer is used in all the countries where the English tongue is spoken in Europe, America, Australia, Asia, and Africa. The formula to convert F into C and R is: $+ x^{\circ} F = \frac{(x - 32) 5}{9} C = \frac{(x - 32) 4}{9} R$ (read: plus x degrees Fahrenheit equal x minus thirty-two by five over nine Centigrade, &c.). The freezing point in Fahrenheit is at $+ 32^{\circ}$, the boiling point at $+ 212^{\circ}$.

Zealand Islands. In January 1901 the five continental colonies together with Tasmania were united under the title of the Commonwealth of Australia. New Zealand, not having joined the federation, remains separate as before. Each colony continues to receive as heretofore a governor from the mother country, while at the head of the federation is a Governor General, who usually resides at Sydney.

COMPOSITION IV.

Druidism and Christianity.

Two friends travelling in Oxfordshire came one day to a small circle of stones by the roadside near the village of Rollright. They looked at them and then one of them said, "What are you thinking of?" — "I was wondering", replied the other, "how many of them there are? Will you count them?" — "Count them yourself, there is a legend that anybody who does count them never manages to get the same number twice running. It's just as well to try for oneself". What then was the mystery of those ancient stones? How did they get there? Where did they come from? Whose work were they? By what means were they placed in their position? Historians cannot agree on this point; some suppose them to be the ruins of a Celtic temple, just as the similar stone circles which one meets with in other parts of the British Islands, e. g. at Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain and at Stenness in Orkney, or as the rude monumental stones of the cromlechs of Anglesey.

The priests who worshipped in such temples were called Druids, and it was a cruel religion they taught known as Druidism. They burned cattle and even men in cages of basket work, as sacrifices to some god, whose favour they desired to win, or whose wrath they wished to turn away. As some people in the East nowadays, e. g. the Japanese, they worshipped the sun; for what could be a more fitting emblem of deity than the grandest and most powerful object in nature? These priests had very great influence. Few dared to oppose or disobey them. The friends of him who had offended them were forbidden to speak to him; nor was he permitted to be present at the great sacrifices.

Which of the plants used for Christmas decorations in England is more welcome than the mistletoe? And yet this too is a relic of this old religion; for the plant was held sacred by the Druids, particularly when it grew upon the oak, for there it is rarer than on the apple-tree. When it grew upon the trees of the sacred oakgroves, it was cut in the spring with great solemnity.

The people to whom these islands belonged were called Kelts, or Celts, and we learn from Herodotus that Phœnician sailors used to visit these islands in the 6th century before Christ, for the purpose of

trading in tin. But otherwise little is known of their history till 55 B. C. Then came the Roman invasion. Caius Julius Cæsar, a Roman general who had already conquered Gaul, came and fought against the Britons to prevent them from sending any help to their kinsfolk in Brittany and Gaul. About a hundred and forty years later the Romans, under the leadership of Agricola, father-in-law of Tacitus, the historian, had succeeded in extending their rule northwards as far as the Firth of Forth and the Clyde, persecuting the Druids, of whom they were so much afraid, because they stirred up the people to rebel.

By making roads over the southern part of the island, the Romans were able to reach any part in a short time with their troops, which gave them a great advantage over the Britons. The chief of the roads, which still exists, runs from Richborough near Ramsgate by way of London to Chester, and further on to the Forth, and is called Watling Street.

After a rule of 350 years the Romans withdrew from Britain (410 A. D.), being compelled by the migration of the Germanic tribes and their invasions to withdraw whatever forces they had in the outlying provinces and guard those nearer home.

The Britons, being left to themselves, were attacked by the Picts and Scots as well as by piratical bands of Low Germans from the coast of the continent of Europe, west of the Baltic, fierce enemies, against whom they were quite unable to defend themselves. Little had they realized what great danger there was in neglecting their own self-defence. So they turned to their enemies themselves for assistance, and can one blame them if they tried to set them against one another? The Angles readily agreed to give this help. So a large band of Angles, Jutes, and Saxons led, as the story runs, by their two chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, came willingly in their long swift ships and drove out the Picts and Scots. But the Britons had little reason to thank the Angles, for they did not prove the same kind friends that the Britons had hoped for. For having brought their wives and children and having settled down to live on a little island, called Thanet, which had been given them by the British, they found the country of those to whom they had brought help, so pleasant that they drove out the very people they had come to defend, and did not rest satisfied till they had divided the land among themselves. And with their coming English History really begins. In the course of time seven distinct English kingdoms were established, under the titles of Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, and Essex. These formed the so-called Saxon Heptarchy.

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At that time these Angles were heathens, but 150 years later they were converted to Christianity. In the following story the Venerable Bede tells how this came about. It happened that some English, or Angle children were one day standing in the market-place at Rome,

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whither they had been sent to be sold. Like most of the Angles they had fair skins, light hair, and blue eyes. In Rome where nearly everybody is dark, this made people notice them very much. There came
 4 by a young priest who caught sight of these youths and asked who they were. On somebody's telling him they were Angles, "Ah", he said, "with faces so angellike, they should not be Angles but angels". He further asked who their king was. "His name", replied the mer-
 8 chant who wanted to sell the boys, "is Ella". The priest is said to have answered, "Alleluia shall be sung in the land of Ella". Those were assuredly prophetic words. Many years afterwards, when he had so greatly distinguished himself as to be raised to the chair of St. Peter
 12 and was called Pope Gregory, he remembered his meeting with the boys. If his position had permitted him to leave Rome, he would certainly have gratified his desire of converting this northern country himself. As this was impossible, he sent Augustine, a Benedictine
 16 monk, as a missionary to preach the Gospel to the English, and at the same time bade him improve their heathen customs, for instance their habit of gambling, for, like most of the German tribes, they were very fond of this vice, and such as had lost all their other property, would
 20 often stake their own personal freedom on a throw of the dice. This order was promptly obeyed; from Italy Augustine went, as he was told, to the home of the King of Kent. He landed at Ebbsfleet in Thanet and made his way to the city of Canterbury, where the grand
 24 cathedral now rises above the roofs of the houses. It was greatly owing to the influence of his wife, Bertha, daughter of a Frankish king, whom we know to have herself been already a believer, that the king suffered himself to be baptized, and his example had such an effect
 28 that gradually all the men of his own kingdom, as well as those of Northumbria, became Christians. To many Augustine gave new names, and thus the name which an English child receives at its baptism, is called its Christian name. His efforts were rewarded with success.
 32 From Canterbury the Gospel spread over a great part of England, and Augustine became the first archbishop of Canterbury.

Wherever Christianity was introduced it softened the old warlike spirit of the heathens, to such an extent that in later days the English
 36 eagerly sought to convert their brethren on the continent. Many missionaries left England for this purpose, of whom the chief perhaps is Winfrith or Boniface, who is known as the Apostle of the Germans.

COMPOSITION V.

The Battle of Hastings (1066).

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The greatest and by far the wisest of all the old English monarchs was Alfred the Great. Though for long years he was engaged in hard struggles against the Danes, during which he had to flee and take re-

fuge in the remotest parts of his kingdom, he constantly strove to promote the intellectual and material welfare of his people. Despite the fact that, up to the age of twelve, he had not been taught any kind of learning, he contributed greatly to impart knowledge, to encourage civilization, and to enlarge the wealth and expressiveness of the English language by translating many books from Latin into English and by calling to him learned men from beyond the sea.

The last of the early English kings was Harold. He had been elected successor to Edward the Confessor. For the latter's heir had been passed over, as a youthful king but ten years old was deemed impossible at such a crisis. No sooner did William, Duke of Normandy, hear of Harold's election, than he laid claim to the English throne, maintaining that he was the rightful heir.

The Normans were of Scandinavian descent. Their ancestors had made expeditions by sea into all parts of Europe, and some people believe that they had even ventured as far as the coast of America. A band of these sea-rovers had come from Norway in the time of King Alfred and had landed on the coast of France. These Northmen, delighted with the country, made themselves masters of that part of France which lies opposite the southern shores of England. This district, with Rouen as its capital, was afterwards called Normandy, and its inhabitants Normans. They had at this time forgotten their old speech, which belonged to the same Teutonic family of languages as that of the Saxons and the Danes, and then spoke French; they had also adopted French manners and customs. When they came to England, the English and French languages existed for two centuries side by side; the upper classes talking French, the lower ones English.

William was the fifth duke of these Normans, and, through being left an orphan at an early age, had had to fight hard for his dukedom. In 1057 he paid a visit to the court of Edward the Confessor, who, he declared, promised to appoint him his successor. William also asserted that Harold had sworn to help him in securing the throne. So when he heard of Harold's accession, exceedingly angry at his having deceived him in this way, and convinced of the goodness of his own cause, he made all preparations for invading England and landed at Pevensey, near Hastings, on Sep. 28th, 1066, in order to support his claim.

On hearing of his arrival, Harold hastened from York to oppose him and reached the hill of Senlac on Oct. 13th. Without waiting for all his troops to assemble, and trusting to the strength of his position, Harold began the battle the next day. The Normans, far superior in numbers to the Saxons, marched to the attack. A single knight rode on in front, tossing his sword in the air and singing songs of French bravery praising the deeds of Charlemagne and his twelve heroes. Two Englishmen, who rode out to meet him, were slain by him, but he

perished by the hand of a third. The English fought on foot, and the Normans found their battle-axes very deadly, for, time after time, as they rode up charging the English, men and horses were hewn down like wood. And still the English ranks stood firm.

Truly the battle might have lasted all the day, and the Normans would not have broken the English ranks, but the crafty William ordered his men to pretend to run away in such a manner as to deceive the English. Part of the English troops, neither perceiving the snare, nor heeding the warnings of their captains, followed them, whereupon the Normans turned on them and cut them down. The more desperate their plight, the more stubbornly Harold and his men continued fighting. They held their ground upon the hill, determined to sell their lives as dearly as possible.

So William, with a view to bringing the battle to an end, said to his archers: "Aiming straight before you is only wasting your arrows against the mound of the camp. Shoot your arrows high up into the air in order that they may fall upon the faces of the English!" They did so agreeably to his order, and a shaft pierced Harold's eye, and he fell dead. There perished a noble warrior. The English lost all hope when they saw their king laid low. Then the Normans easily succeeded in winning the battle, and their duke obtained the kingdom. Harold's mother, who loved him very dearly, begged for his body, but the victor, not caring whether he hurt the tender feelings of a mother's heart, or not, would not grant it even to her. Without waste of time William advanced to Dover and seeing that he had lost so many men, took measures to get reinforcements sent from Normandy. Then he proceeded to London and had himself crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day 1066, for the English could do nothing but accept him as their lord. Through William not recognizing the election of Stigand to the see of Canterbury as lawful, the ceremony was performed by the Archbishop of York.

To overawe the citizens of London who hated their new master, William had a fortress built where the Tower now stands, and he strengthened his position at Winchester, the old West-Saxon capital, by erecting a similar stronghold. And from that time onwards he repeatedly made use of this means of keeping the English in subjection.

When William was firmly settled on the throne, he ordered Domesday-Book, a record of the survey of most of the lands of England, to be written.

The Normans brought with them a new system called Feudalism. It received its name from the "feud", a piece of land held from a superior on condition of military or other services being rendered to him. Thus the great lords and vassals held their lands from the king on the condition of fighting for him, and their subtenants from them on

similar terms. Hence the leading feature of the feudal system was that a tenant, instead of paying all the rent in corn or cattle or money, paid only a portion in that way, and for the rest was obliged to fight under his lord's banner, without pay, when called to arms. Did any one fail to answer to the call, he would be punished by the loss of his fief.

COMPOSITION VI.

Caxton (born about A. D. 1422, died 1491).

If any important event in English history ever took place silently, it was the introduction of printing into England by William Caxton. Whereas he was formerly said by many people to have been the inventor of this useful art, now everybody admits that this honour belongs rather to the German Gutenberg, whose invention Caxton had learnt on the Continent. For Caxton spent much time in Flanders, living at Bruges, when the art of printing was introduced into that town. He was employed as a copyist, and he tells us himself, how weary his hands were and how dimmed his eyes with his hard work. Can any one who has copied out a long manuscript, fail to understand with what joy Caxton welcomed the printing-press? For before that time every book had to be written by hand. In nearly all the monasteries of Europe there was one room set apart for the copying of manuscripts, in which no one was allowed to speak, each making known his wants by signs. We owe most of the copies of the ancient classics to the diligence of these learned monks.

Caxton himself was not a monk, but in his early days had been apprenticed to a mercer. After achieving success himself as an independent man of business in foreign parts, he became a kind of librarian to the Duchess of Burgundy; for in those days many of the princes of Europe were fond of books, and spent a great deal of money in buying MSS. and forming libraries. Caxton came back to England in 1476. The Wars of the Roses were just over. The House of Lancaster, which had seized the throne of the Plantagenet kings, had been itself replaced by the House of York in the person of Edward IV. He came to visit Caxton in that three-storied house at Westminster where a rough printing press had been set up. Probably neither king nor printer realized, as they gazed upon the freshly printed pages, how profoundly the new art would affect not merely the pleasure of the few lovers of books, not only the methods of a king's governance, but even, with lapse of time, the life of the meanest subject of a king. Printing has indeed proved to be one of the most efficient means of enlarging men's minds and of raising the intellectual and social standard of the people. Though Caxton was an old man and had to struggle against many difficulties, the lack of skilled assistants, and accurate tools, he persevered for fifteen years, devoting all his time to his press. A trouble which seems greatly

to have disturbed him was the changing nature of the English language; he says, "Our language, as now spoken, varieth far from that which was used and spoken when I was born."

4 The first books printed were the "Game and Play of Chess" and the "Destruction of Troy"; this latter book furnished Shakespeare with the material for one of his plays. Then Caxton published Chaucer's works, and a good many books translated by himself into English; which
8 occupied no fewer than two thousand sheets of two pages each. One book which he printed for the people and which bears the title of "The Book of Courtesy", is very amusing in parts. The author says that people who use books badly should not be allowed to read them. He
12 speaks very severely to those who read with unwashed hands, dirty nails, greasy elbows, leaning over the volume, munching fruit and cheese over the open leaves. Though the greatest care was bestowed on each of the books that Caxton produced, it sorely grieved him to see
16 that they nevertheless contained several misprints. These books were printed not in a Roman but in a Gothic type, which, on account of its black letters, afterwards became known as Black Letter. The modern German characters are a development of this Gothic type. In those
20 days there existed no movable types, so that the same block of letters could only be used in the printing of one particular book, and nobody then had any idea of how wonderful a development this art was destined to attain. Could Caxton, for instance, foresee that at the pre-
24 sent day the Times would be able to print in its own office in one hour from a single machine 30 000 copies of its paper containing, it is said, as many letters as the whole Bible?

COMPOSITION VII.

28 The Discovery of America by Columbus and its bearings on England.

It was on the 3rd of August 1492 that Christopher Columbus, after long years of waiting, sailed from Palos with the three ships which the
32 monarchs of Spain, Ferdinand and Isabella, had given him. The time was indeed favourable for a voyage of discovery. For navigation, which but forty years before had been still in a state of infancy (the mariners scarcely venturing out of sight of land), had made increasing progress,
36 in proportion as the mariner's compass had passed into more general use. It was the bold enterprises of Prince Henry the Navigator that had led the Portuguese to double Cape Bojador, to penetrate to the waters of the Tropics, which they divested of their fancied terrors, to
40 sail round the Cape of Good Hope, and finally (in 1498) to reach India by this eastern route; thus enabling Portugal to enrich herself by sharing in the profitable trade of the East Indies, which till then had

been monopolized by Genoa and Venice, whose vessels met the caravans that had travelled by land from India, in the harbours of Asia Minor and Egypt.

Columbus was eminently fitted for his task, for, though an Italian 4 by birth, being a native of Genoa, he had been living for many years in the very midst of this enthusiasm for maritime discovery. At school he had been taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar, and afterwards, at the university of Pavia, as he had already shown an in- 8 clination for a nautical career, he was instructed in geometry, geography, astronomy, and navigation. He had also acquired a familiar knowledge of the Latin tongue, which at that time was everywhere the medium of instruction, and the common language of the schools. The fame of 12 the Portuguese discoveries had caused him to come to Lisbon (about 1470), where he married the daughter of one of the most distinguished of Prince Henry's followers and supported his family by the making of maps and charts. While so engaged he had earned the reputation of 16 a man of great scientific knowledge. His information he gained from the writings of ancient and modern travellers, among others from Marco Polo, the Venetian who had spent some years among the Chinese. In those days, too, the long neglected folios of the ancient geographers 20 had been brought down from the shelves of the monkish libraries and reached the hands of all who required them. Moreover he had himself made more than one voyage to Guinea, and had even lived for some time in Porto-Santo, one of the Madeira islands and almost the farthest 24 limit known to the West; for beyond these islands and the Azores, the great tract of the Atlantic Ocean to the West was entirely unknown.

At that time men were convinced that the earth was a flat disc; but considering all points of the question, combining knowledge with practical experience, Columbus had come to the conclusion that the earth 28 was round like a globe, and had constructed a map to illustrate his idea. Reasoning on this theory, he argued that, if he were to sail to the West, he would ultimately reach India. But unless he could win the 32 support of some powerful sovereign, he had no means of putting his theories to the proof. Columbus tried to prove to the Portuguese Court that his plan of sailing to the West was quite feasible, but the King, whose interest in maritime discovery was tempered by excessive cau- 36 tion, deemed the project extravagant, and the sailor's request for assistance was not complied with. Spain, which at that time was at war with the Moors, not giving him any help either, Columbus turned to England, which was recovering from the civil wars under the House 40 of Tudor. But his brother was captured by pirates on the homeward passage, as he was bringing Henry the Seventh's answer. Applying again to Isabella, after the conquest of Granada, Columbus succeeded in getting three ships.

After leaving the Canary Islands, he sailed directly to the West never doubting but that he would find India. For a time all went well. Then terror, discontent, and mutiny seized hold on the hearts of his
4 sailors, and Columbus, in no way shaken in his belief, could only dispel his seamen's fears, caused by the deflection of the compasses which the pilots as well as he had noticed, by pointing out the indubitable
proofs that land was near at hand. These were a flock of small birds
8 flying in the air, a branch of thorn with leaves and berries on it, and an artificially carved staff floating in the water.

It was on Friday, the 12th of October 1492, that Columbus first beheld the New World. As the day dawned, the Spaniards saw a level
12 island rise before them several leagues in extent and covered with trees like a large and thickly planted orchard, and for the dispirited mariners there could be no pleasanter and lovelier sight to look at. With loud exclamations they rejoiced at the thought that their perils were over
16 and that their labours were at last crowned with success. Though apparently quite uncultivated the island was populous, for the inhabitants were seen running down to the shore from all parts of the wood. They were perfectly naked, without any clothes whatever, and
20 as they stood gazing at the ships from afar, they appeared to the Spaniards to be lost in wonder, and afterwards treated the strangers like gods.

Columbus made a signal for the ships to cast anchor and the boats
24 to be manned and armed. He entered his own boat, clothed in scarlet and holding the royal standard, whilst the two other boats put off in company, each with a banner, emblazoned with a green cross, and having for an emblem on either side the letters F and I, the initials of
28 the Castilian monarchs. On reaching the shore Columbus threw himself on his knees, kissed the earth and returned thanks to Heaven. Then rising he drew his sword, ordered the standard to be displayed, and, assembling all his men round him, took solemn possession of the
32 island in the name of the Spanish sovereigns, giving the island the name of San Salvador. This group of islands, of which Columbus thus became the discoverer, is now known as the West Indies. This arose from a misconception on the part of Columbus, who was of opinion he
36 had arrived at some islands off the East coast of Asia.

Having gone through all the necessary ceremonies, he made all who were present take the oath of obedience to him, as admiral and viceroy, representing the persons of the sovereigns. The crew thronged
40 round the admiral with overflowing zeal, some embracing him, others kissing him; and those who had been most mutinous during the voyage, were now the loudest in their praises and wishes for further success. Some begged favours, as if he had already wealth and honour in his
44 gift, or else reminded him of services they had rendered. Many cowards,

who had annoyed him greatly by the insolent speeches ever in their mouths, were now to be seen crouching at his feet, begging his pardon for all the trouble they had caused, and promising perfect obedience for the future.

The discovery of America awakened the spirit of adventure among the sea-faring nations of Europe. Five years later two English ships sailed from Bristol, which was then the commercial capital of the West of England and the heart of maritime enterprise. They were commanded by John Cabot, a Venetian, to whom Henry VII. had lent his aid in order to promote commercial development. Cabot discovered Newfoundland and the wintry coast of Labrador. Desolate though it was it yet contained a source of wealth more enduring than the riches of the Spanish gold mines, and certainly yielding more solid profits than the fabulous abundance in gold and precious stones of the mysterious El Dorado. Its cod fishing grounds were soon frequented by the mariners of Devonshire, a venturesome and half-piratical race, and this trade, while it built up the prosperity of Western England, helped to develop, by bracing effort, the masculine character of the nation. Issues fraught with supreme importance to England were soon to put the value of this training to the proof. With increasing confidence the English seamen ventured farther and farther afield. There grew up a spirit of rivalry between England and Spain, which was intensified by the religious and political differences of the two countries. With great daring Sir Francis Drake had sailed round the world plundering the galleons of King Philip as he crossed the Spanish Main. When open war became inevitable he sailed to Cadiz and burnt the store-ships in the harbour, singeing the Spanish King's beard, as he termed it. The crowning test came when the "Invincible" Armada sailed for England (in 1588). To meet them, Drake set forth from Plymouth (in Devonshire) with a company of brave heroes, who, aided by a terrible storm, scattered the huge fleet to the four winds of heaven.

The old spirit of adventure took a new form, and was invested with a deeper meaning, by the spiritual struggles through which England passed in the seventeenth century. Most of the earlier attempts to form settlements in America, which sprang only from a love of adventure or from a desire of material gain, ended in failure. But when they were supported by religious conviction, quickened by the memories of persecution and torture, they won their way to success. Such was the fate of that little band, known as the Pilgrim fathers, who sailed in the Mayflower from Plymouth, in 1620. During the first winter they lost half their number by cold and disease, but the rest persevered and became in time the founders of Massachusetts and the nucleus of Puritan New England.

COMPOSITION VIII.

Great Inventions.

In England, before the middle of the eighteenth century, there were not so many large industrial towns as there are now, for there were no large factories nor immense mills for spinning and weaving, such as we now see scattered all over the country, at Manchester, in Yorkshire and elsewhere. Cloth was then woven by the weaver in his cottage, while his wife and daughters spun cotton for him to use.

At that time a poor weaver, called James Hargreaves, invented the spinning-jenny, a kind of wheel which would enable one person to spin as much as ten or twenty could do before. It is a pity that his fellow weavers should so very foolishly have feared that the invention would be a benefit to the rich, but injurious to the interests of the poor. For, not understanding the good which the new method was to bring them, they broke into poor Hargreaves' house, smashed all his fine machines to pieces, and left the poor man and his family to die amid the utmost distress and poverty.

There was another mechanic, just as poor a man as Hargreaves, whose fortune was wholly different. This was Richard Arkwright. He lived in an underground room in an obscure alley at Preston, where he practised the trade of a barber. But as he always whetted his razors, and kept his water hot, and the soap ready, for customers who seldom or never came, he was very poor. One night before getting into bed, the idea came to him that he might get more customers, if he shaved at a lesser price than the other barbers. So, as the usual charge was twopence, he put up a placard with the following invitation: "Come to the Subterraneous Barber, He shaves for a Penny." Many people who saw this original advertisement, left the foremost shops of the town, and came to patronize the "Penny Barber". And when the others, on account of this defection, began to charge a penny only, Arkwright still further reduced his price to a half-penny.

He was the child of very poor parents, and his schooling was of the most meagre kind, if, indeed, he ever was at school at all. Still, he was a man to persevere, and though poor, had no intention of remaining so. Finding that shaving, after all, brought him little money, he next attempted business as a dealer in hair, and thrived so well that in a short time he was able to marry. His leisure time he was very fond of spending in making experiments in mechanics; and as he heard that there was great difficulty in getting sufficient yarn to keep the looms employed, he tried to find some way to overcome that difficulty. And so confident of success was he, that he from that moment neglected his business, and he and his wife grew poorer and poorer. The unhappy woman was so angry with his utter foolishness, as she thought it, that she broke one of his models. At last, in 1769, when he was all but in

rags, he completed the model of a machine for spinning cotton thread. but afraid of the hostility of the Lancashire spinners, he preferred to move to Nottingham. After the very greatest difficulty he succeeded in convincing Messrs. Need and Strutt, two manufacturers, of the value of his invention and entered into partnership with them. But Fortune treated him nearly as badly as she did his predecessor, for when the invention proved successful, the partners tried to rob him of his just reward. Such was their ingratitude and so hard is it for a rich and a poor man to meet on equal terms. Moreover they felt no shame in trying to persuade people not to use his yarns, though they were far superior to their own. So Arkwright worked his own yarns up into calicoes and stockings himself.

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For the first five years the mills yielded little or no profit, but the persistent man struggled on bravely and succeeded in making a large fortune, and he lived happy for the rest of his life. As a reward the king created him a knight, so that he was afterwards known as Sir Richard Arkwright. He died in 1792, leaving a fortune of about half a million sterling.

It was an age of great inventions. In the very year (1769) in which Arkwright took out his patent, James Watt secured a patent for his steam-engine. His discovery was soon afterwards employed as a means for driving ships. It was the Americans, however, who first established a regular steam-boat service on the Hudson; and now there are lines of steamers running to all parts of the world.

24

We owe our railways with their swift and powerful steam-engines to George Stephenson, who was born at Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The first railway constructed was the Stockton and Darlington Railway in 1825, then followed a few years later the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. At first many people were against this new way of travelling: there was much grumbling about it, the smoke and noise of the engines being strongly objected to. It was said that wherever the railway went, land would lose its value. But it was soon seen how useful these engines would be, and so railways were quickly made between all the most important places in the kingdom.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century a journey from London to Edinburgh would have taken nine days; at present we can travel this distance in eight hours and a half, or even less, at a cost of £ 1. 12. 8, the parliamentary fare being reckoned at 1 d. a mile.

A still quicker means was discovered of enabling people to send short messages to one another. This was the electric telegraph. The idea was not discovered by Wheatstone; but he so improved the system as to make it a success, and though experiments were simultaneously being made in England, Germany, and America, the telegraph was first practically worked between London and Camden Town in 1837.

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The progress, however, of mechanical skill has never stopped. In consequence of the elaboration of a system of wireless telegraphy messages can now be exchanged across the Atlantic, without the help of a submarine cable, between Poldhu (Cornwall) and Glace Bay, Cape Breton (Nova Scotia, Canada).

Thus the 15th century, which gave us the printing press, the mariner's compass, and gunpowder, and the 18th and early 19th centuries, in which the constant application of the motive force of steam so profoundly changed the modes of life, stand out conspicuously as eras of invention. And now we seem to stand at the threshold of a third great era of wonderful change. The vast powers of electricity surpass even those of steam, and the general application of this new force, not merely for the purposes of lighting and locomotion, but also to such domestic uses as cooking and heating, is likely to bring about a great revolution in the social life of mankind, to render the work of manufacture easier and cheaper, and to make electrical engineering the most important of mechanical arts. No one man has done more to make this new force serve the peaceful purposes of everyday life than T. A. Edison of New York, to whose inventive imagination we owe among other things the incandescent light and the phonograph.

In the early years of the twentieth century a new science has been created almost before our eyes. Never before has such marvellous progress been made within so short a space of time as in aeronautics. It is but very few years since the possibility of flight through the air was looked upon with incredulity, but airships, dirigible balloons and aeroplanes have proved the feasibility of aerial navigation, and the conquest of the air seems to be at hand.

COMPOSITION IX.

Nelson (died in 1805).

The warlike activity which was displayed in France in 1798, caused many people to think that an invasion of England was intended. Therefore measures were taken to give the French a warm reception, in case they should venture to approach the English coast. The militia and the volunteers were called out and drilled, and as in the days of the Invincible Armada, the government made preparations for the kindling of beacons on hills and mountains, as soon as the enemy were in sight.

But Napoleon did not intend to invade England. Egypt was his destination. To conquer that country was to be the first step to the conquest of India. For it was the English who had won the East Indies in the various wars which the commercial rivalries of the different "East India Companies" had brought about. Nor had the French forgotten the many defeats they had suffered, about fifty years before, at

the hands of the English, under Lord Clive, of whom Macaulay, the great English historian, has written.

Leaving Toulon, the French naval station in the Mediterranean, Napoleon eluded the English fleet and landed his troops at Alexandria, 4 before Nelson, the great English hero of the sea, of whose doings every Englishman is justly proud, could overtake him.

When Nelson came up, night was fast coming on, and the French ships were much larger than his own and had a strong position, close 8 to the shore. Nelson, however, resolved to begin the attack at once. He first ordered some ships to sail in close to the shore, between it and the French ships. This was very dangerous, but Nelson's sailors were not only devoted to him but were as skilful as they were brave. 12 So they sailed in and laid their ships alongside of the French men-of-war. Then the battle began, about six o'clock in the evening.

It must have been terrible to hear, all the night through, the thunder of the cannon, and to see the flashes of fire that lightened up 16 the decks of the ships. Again and again, too, as ship after ship struck, or hauled down, her flag in submission, one could hear a British cheer above all the din and roar.

At about ten o'clock the flagship of the French admiral, the 20 "Orient", caught fire. The men fought on until the fire reached the store of powder, and the great Orient blew up with all her thousand men. Many of the crew who were struggling for their lives in the water, were saved by English boats. 24

One by one the French ships were taken or destroyed, and when morning came, it was found that only two had escaped. Napoleon was for a time a prisoner in Egypt, for the splendid fleet which had proudly brought him from France, was quite ruined, and he had no means of 28 return to France. India was safe, and England, who before had been the mistress of the seas, was so still.

For the next seven years Napoleon was engaged in wars on the continent; chiefly against Austria and Russia. They were successful 32 wars, and Napoleon had in the meantime been elected Emperor of the French. His ambitious object was to establish a universal empire; and now that the Continental Powers had been defeated, he turned his attention to England. He resolved to punish "perfidious Albion", to 36 repeat the events of 1066, and to triumph at a second Hastings. At least, he hoped so, and accordingly made dreadful preparations for the attack: every harbour, from Holland to Brittany, from Rotterdam to Brest, was required to provide ships, while he himself, having neglected 40 nothing that might contribute to his victory, waited in the encampment of Boulogne with a large army for an opportunity to cross the Channel. Could he but throw his army across the Channel, proud Albion would be at his feet. "Let us be masters of the Channel for six 44 hours", he is reported to have said, "and we are masters of the world."

But whenever danger threatens, all England rises as one man. "It is better to lose one's life than to be the slave of a foreign usurper", was the thought of each of her citizens; and in all parts of the country soldiers were collected and drilled. In this hour of danger, the great admiral was once again given the command. It was he who sailed with a fleet of twenty-seven sail to attack the French before they left the Mediterranean.

Napoleon had persuaded the Spaniards to join him, and he hoped with their fleet and his own to be able to crush the English. But he was mistaken. Nelson met the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar in the southwest corner of Spain, and here the great battle was fought. After he had made all his preparations, Nelson went to his cabin and prayed as follows:

"O Thou, Great and Almighty God, whom I worship, grant to my country, and for the benefit of Europe in general, a great and glorious victory; and may no misconduct in any one tarnish it; and may humanity after victory be the predominant feature in the British fleet! For myself individually, I commit my life to Thy keeping; may Thy blessing alight on my endeavours for serving my country faithfully. To Thee I resign myself and the just cause which is intrusted to me to defend. Thine be the glory! Amen."

It was on this occasion that Nelson gave that memorable order for the battle, which no officer of his ever forgot, "England expects every man to do his duty."

Nelson's ship was called the "Victory" and was posted in the hottest part of the battle, attacking the French "Redoutable", and though the latter did her much damage with her fire, the Victory reserved hers till at close quarters. Nelson was on deck wearing his admiral's coat, with all his medals and stars on it, a good mark for the enemy's riflemen to shoot at. When the battle had lasted about two hours, he was struck on the left shoulder and terribly wounded. Nelson told his friends that he knew his wound was fatal, and ordered the surgeon to attend to the other wounded men first. Though everything was done that might alleviate his suffering, he lay in great pain for about three hours.

Before he died, news was brought him of the great victory the English had won, and this made him very happy. "Thank God, I have done my duty!" he was heard to say, and a few moments later the brave heart had ceased to beat for ever.

Nelson was but 47 years of age when his life was cut off, but Robert Southey, his biographer, justly remarks: "He cannot be said to have fallen prematurely whose work was done; nor ought he to be lamented who died so full of honours and at the height of human fame".

His body was taken to England and laid to rest — not in Westminster Abbey, where most of England's mighty dead, statesmen, warriors, poets, lie buried, but — in St. Paul's Cathedral. Hither also was borne many years later the great duke who, at Waterloo, by the ready help of Blucher, the intrepid Prussian hero, completed Nelson's work and saved Europe from the domination of France.

COMPOSITION X.

The Visit of the Prince of Wales to India (1875).

In 1875 the Prince of Wales paid a visit to the great dependency of the British Crown. It is with mingled feelings of admiration, regret, and horror that Englishmen look back on the story of their country's connection with India. They admire the enterprise of those early merchants of the East India Company to whom, in 1600, Elizabeth had given a Charter. They admire, too, the many splendid deeds of military heroism of which India has been the scene. They applaud the wise policy of the elder Pitt, the friend of Frederick the Great, who, in the seven Years' War, fought France not on the plains of Europe but on the sea, and in far America, and distant India. The daring of Lord Clive (1757) and the resolute government of Warren Hastings command their admiration, while they regret the dubious administrative acts which led to Hastings' subsequent impeachment (1788). They can point without dishonour to the steady progress of English influence and power, by which, in a country that for centuries had been the home of warring tribes, a Pax Britannica has been established securing peace to more millions than had ever known the Pax Romana. This peace, too, has been largely kept by the native forces of the country. The horrors of that brief moment of frenzy when (in 1857) the Sepoys almost overthrew the dominion thus laboriously established, are lost sight of in admiration of the patient heroism of Delhi and of Lucknow (1857).

From that time onwards (from 1858) the English State takes over all responsibility for the administration of this great country. The semi-independent princes recognize its power, and to this formal expression was given when in 1877 Queen Victoria assumed the title of Empress of India. Since that time the political influence of the British power has been much increased. To-day 222,000,000 are under direct British rule; her native states with a population of 62,000,000 look to-day to the Prince who visited them in 1875 as their Emperor. Social and economic changes have been equally great. A vast system of education, equitable taxation, and an immense net-work of railways have all contributed to swell the trade and increase the wealth of the country.

The prince travelled by land as far as Brindisi (the Brundisium of the Ancients, in Italy) and there went on board the Serapis. Taking

advantage of his presence in Egypt, he paid a visit to the Khedive¹), investing his son with the order of the Garter. After the Suez Canal and the Red Sea had been passed, the prince landed at Aden, a most
4 important coaling-station at the entrance of the Indian Ocean, and then sailed for Bombay, where preparations for his reception had been going on for weeks.

Here the prince was received by the Viceroy, Lord Northbrook,
8 and the scene was rendered highly picturesque by the gorgeous oriental dresses of the many princes present with their large retinues. The chief of these princes was, perhaps, the young Guicowar of Baroda, who had brought his gold and silver guns with him, — no mere orna-
12 mental toys, but handsome three-pounders, used for firing salutes. To the territories of this young chief the prince paid a visit a few days later, and was entertained with the curious spectacle of contests between wild animals. But as the prince, in order to avoid anything that
16 might appear shocking to the feelings of a humanitarian European, had made the stipulation beforehand that the animals should not be allowed to hurt one another, there was little real fighting.

On his way to Ceylon the prince landed at the little Portuguese
20 colony of Goa, and then proceeded to Colombo, where he held the usual reception of chiefs. There was the same ceremony, only on a grander scale, at the capitals of the other provinces, Madras and Calcutta. Everywhere the prince was welcomed as the true successor to the
24 Empire of the Moguls.

Leaving Calcutta the prince went to Benares, the holy city of India, where the pilgrims bathe themselves in the Ganges and wash their sins away in its sacred waves. Then he visited Lucknow, the
28 town so well known to English people, and to all readers of Tennyson's poems, for the heroic defence during the Great Mutiny (1857), and the noble efforts of Havelock and Outram for its relief. Here the prince laid the foundation stone of a memorial to the Sepoys, or native troops,
32 who had fallen in the Mutiny, and held a levee of the survivors of the siege.

In the early spring of 1876, after the prince had made the tour of India, he took part in the characteristic sport of the country, at the
36 invitation of Sir Jung Bahador. A tiger hunt necessitates preparations more extensive than an ordinary European would imagine, but all is arranged by the native servants, who have a wonderful ability in

¹) Khedive (which means 'prince') is the title granted in 1867 by the sultan of Turkey to the ruler of Egypt, who nominally is a vice-roy, or governor, of the Padishah of Constantinople. It was the same khedive who, in November 1869, had welcomed the many illustrious representatives of the European states at the ceremony of the formal opening of the Suez Canal, which, after many difficulties, had been completed (in 1868) by the indomitable perseverance of its projector, the Frenchman Ferdinand de Lesseps.

executing their masters' orders, even though all the conveniences of civilized life have to be transported to the wilderness, such as cooking utensils, coffee-pots, cups and saucers, jugs, plates and dishes, dinner-napkins, table-linen, tumblers, glasses, knives and forks, spoons, etc.,⁴ not forgetting the portable ice-chest with its cooling wines and soda water. Spacious tents are rigged up and furnished with carpets, tables, and easy-chairs. Before the tent which serves as the dining-room, the natives dig a ditch and raise a rough terrace, where one may sit, even⁸ late at night, in reasonable security from cobras, the most poisonous of Indian snakes, and other evil beasts.

The elephant is the natural foe of the tiger. On this occasion the party comprised 600 of these animals; the majority of them were used¹² as beaters or "pad elephants", while the shooting party were mounted two by two in the howdahs¹) on the backs of the others. A huge circle was formed by this large train of elephants, which gradually contracted round the place where the tiger was thought to lie, till he had no choice¹⁶ but to show himself. On the first day of the hunt, the prince shot no fewer than six tigers, a greater number than any man has ever been known to shoot in this country in one day.

During the hunt one of the suite had a very narrow escape. He²⁰ had put up a tiger not far in front of him, trying to get away in the high grass, for tigers rarely attack anybody unless wounded. He had fired too quickly and wounded him in the flank. With a leap that seemed to raise his body perpendicularly from the ground, the splendid²⁴ creature flew into the air and settled right on the head of the young hunter's elephant. Even for an old sportsman the position would have been a trying one to be brought into such a terrific encounter at arm's length. But the young officer did not lose his nerve at so dangerous a²⁸ moment. As the elephant plunged wildly in his efforts to shake off the beast, the hunter seized his second gun and, aiming for a second at the gigantic cat, fired again. The claws released their fearful hold, the tiger fell dead, staining the jungle with his blood, and a yell of triumph rose³² all along the line.

COMPOSITION XI.

England of the time of Queen Victoria's Jubilee (1887).

Although three English sovereigns, besides Queen Victoria²), have³⁶ completed their fifty years of rule, there was no ground, in their case,

¹) A kind of box fastened on the elephant's back for people to sit in.

²) Queen Victoria ascended the throne in 1837, at the early age of eighteen. In the same year Hanover, which from the accession of George I (1714) had in personal union been united with the English crown, became separated again through the action of the Salic law prevailing in Hanover, which prevented females from succeeding to the throne.

for such great joy as that which hailed the celebration of the Queen's Jubilee in 1887. The three kings¹⁾ had years of trouble and sorrow to look back upon. One was at war with his barons, the second had
 4 outlived his glory and his fame, while George III. was afflicted with a grievous personal calamity.

Queen Victoria, too, has had her sad troubles, but she has always had the sympathy of her people and has borne them nobly. But what
 8 gave England the right to rejoice at the Queen's Jubilee was the great progress she had made under Victoria's government, in Commerce, Science, and Art. The number, size, and speed of her ships have wonderfully increased; the riches of her merchant-princes are many
 12 times as great, and the houses of all are better built and more comfortably furnished. The spread of education has raised the intelligence of the people, numerous exhibitions have created a taste for the beautiful and helped to elevate the masses. Cheap postage²⁾, rapid communi-
 16 cation, and a good and moral press have worked together to open and enlarge men's minds. New ideals of life and art were fashioned by William Morris, John Ruskin, and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. Thomas Carlyle, the prophet of duty, has delivered his message to the
 20 nation. Feeling the lowness of civilization yet attained by man, he made it his work as a writer to teach men to live vigorous lives: "Do the duty which lies nearest thee, which thou knowest to be a duty. Here, in this poor, miserable, hampered actual wherein thou even now
 24 standest, here or nowhere is thy ideal; work it out therefrom; believe, live, and be free." These fifty years have been specially marked by the vast share of public attention that has been given to the improvement of the condition of the labouring classes. Through the efforts of
 28 Richard Cobden and William Bright the Anti-Corn-Law-League secured for them cheap bread, while Charles Kingsley and his band of Christian socialists helped to provide them with happier and more healthful homes; and even to the destitute, vicious, and criminal classes in the
 32 slums of the East End of London, and to those wrecked on the rocks of life in other dark spots of England, relief had appeared through the social work of General Booth and his Salvation Army, so that there was none so poor but had some cause to be glad at the Queen's Jubilee.

36 Moreover, George III. had lost England a colonial empire, whereas, under Victoria, she had gained another, which has prospered under her rule. Australia and New Zealand are now the homes of millions of English people, and the population of Canada has increased enormously.

¹⁾ Henry III., Edward III., George III.

²⁾ It was in 1840 that, notwithstanding the opposition of the Post-office officials and the ministers, Rowland Hill succeeded in seeing his scheme of a uniform reduced postage fee come into force. To him is also due the idea and introduction of post-stamps.

The colonies have quadrupled their wealth many times over since the days of the Queen's accession.

And there is no denying the fact that a large share of this progress was due to the noble character of the Queen herself, and that England had real cause to return joyful thanks to God for the preservation of her life. Hence the central feature of the Jubilee Celebration was the Thanksgiving Service in Westminster Abbey, on June 21st, 1887.

Merrily pealed the bells, as the procession started from Buckingham Palace, the London residence of the English sovereigns. It was one of the most splendid London had ever witnessed. All the sovereigns of Europe were either present in person or had sent some of their nearest relatives as their representative. Numerous Indian princes, following one after the other, resplendent in their jewels, testified to the loyalty and devotion of India; while many other potentates from the Far East proved the world-wide influence of England.

On leaving the Palace, the procession proceeded slowly up Constitution Hill, then along Piccadilly, gorgeous with draperies of many a hue. From Regent Circus to Waterloo Place the decorations were on the most magnificent scale, with a splendid triumphal arch at either end. Trafalgar Square was literally packed with human beings. Here at the foot of Nelson's Column were appropriately drawn up the boys of the Royal Naval College. Through Northumberland Avenue, the home of the great hotels, all crowded with eager sight-seers, the procession found its way to the Embankment; and then passing through Parliament Square, where huge stands thronged with people gave a most enthusiastic reception to the Queen, the royal party reached the Abbey, which they entered by the west door. Beside the Queen's carriage rode her sons, grandsons and sons-in-law, the Prince of Wales and the Crown Prince of Germany being loudly cheered by the crowds. The whole route was lined with soldiers, who presented arms as the queen passed.

In the Abbey, room was found for over 9000 people, drawn from all ranks; nor were the working classes forgotten. After the service, which was performed by the highest dignitaries of the Church of England, the Queen kissed all the members of the royal family, who sat within the rails of the raised dais. Then the procession wended its way back to Buckingham Palace, amid the repeated "Hurrahs" of the populace.

In the evening the whole town was brilliantly illuminated, in a manner well suited to the memorable occasion; private houses striving in friendly rivalry to outdo the costly illuminations of public buildings. Of the latter the most conspicuous in the City were the Bank of England and the Mansion House. In order that the people might walk freely about the streets, no carriage traffic was allowed within certain limits.

Throughout the United Kingdom the Jubilee was celebrated with the same enthusiasm. On the Malvern Hills a huge beacon was kindled, which should give the signal for the lighting of all the others; and a few moments later, one could see the answering fires blazing lively up on every side, bearing no more, as in the days of the Armada, the tidings of approaching danger, but, as it were, a message of joy and thankfulness for the progress of peace.

For nearly fourteen years Queen Victoria continued to reign. With her death, in January 1901, the House of Hanover came to an end. Her son, King Edward VII., is held to be the first of a new line of kings (the dynasty of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha).

Great were the changes which England had witnessed during the centuries that had elapsed since William the Conqueror landed at Pevensey [1066]. For a time feudalism as well as the foreign tongue which he had brought over from the continent helped to keep English and Norman apart; but the shifting play of forces, causing now the English and the Crown to unite in order to curb the intolerance of Norman barons, now forcing barons and people to stand side by side and wrest a magna charta from a tyrant king — the Magna Charta of King John [1215], the great charter of English freedom —, gradually created a united nation using a common language ampler than either Norman French or Saxon English. This fusion helped to establish that mutual confidence of ruler and ruled which marked the reign of Edward I., and led to the meeting of the Model Parliament [1295], the first perfect parliament to which the three estates of the realm — clergy, barons, and commons — had sent representatives. The difficulties of the Lancastrian kings increased the powers of parliament, but the destruction of the great noble families by the wars of the Roses paved the way for the absolute rule of the Tudors.

Other causes were also at work to effect great changes. The true chivalry of the crusades had long since been dead, and its later travesty of ceremonial form (the over-elaboration of tournaments and rules of courtly etiquette) was also dying. The castle passes away before the cannon, the bowman cedes to the musketeer with his flask of gunpowder. There is no more place in England for Robin Hood and his merry men; no longer will he — as Sir Walter Scott tells us in his *Ivanhoe* — cleave with his arrow a peeled willow at the distance of a hundred paces.

The old faith, too, is changed. The monasteries disappear with their monks and nuns, the Roman Catholic priest makes room for the Protestant preacher¹).

¹) It was Henry VIII. who, in 1534, called a parliament, which abolished the supreme authority of the Pope in England and declared the king "Supreme Head of the Church in England." It is a well known fact that the very same king had at first opposed the Reformation and that, as a reward for his refutation of Luther's doctrines in the "Assertion of the Seven Sacraments" (1521)

In time the old English spirit of freedom survives, rekindled by the clash of war. Unheeded of the signs of the time, the second Stuart goes to his death upon the scaffold¹⁾ on that dreary day at the end of January 1649, and when, about forty years later, James II. endeavours⁴ to subvert the constitution, his throne is (in 1689) declared vacant. From that time onwards constitutional government is secure, ever adapting itself to the new condition of successive ages and fostered by none with more sympathy and sagacity than by Queen Victoria.⁸

Mr. Saunders' Letter.

Sydney, Nov. 4th, 1909.

My dear Bob,

As I write this letter no doubt you are making¹² great preparations for celebrating Guy Fawkes' day, to-morrow, with a splendid display of fireworks.

I got both your letters at the same time. I found them here waiting for me, a few days ago, when I came back from the sheep-run.¹⁶ I was quite surprised at the size of the parcel you sent me. I see that both you and Tim have been very busy: I must compliment Mr. Matheson on the excellent way in which he has taught you; he evidently understands far better than ever I did, how to get work out²⁰ of you. For from the amount of papers you sent me, I can judge how hard at work you must have been. The compositions are very interesting, and the subjects well chosen. I am returning them by the next mail. I hope you know as much about the other parts of²⁴ English History as you do about the Battle of Hastings or Nelson. The last piece and the last but one greatly took the fancy of some of my friends; so give Tim our heartiest congratulations. But I preferred your account of Leichhardt. I believe I may safely say that there is²⁸ no one in Sydney but regards his statue with feelings of admiration and affection, and now it has a still greater interest for me, for whenever I go by, I cannot but remember your essay. It is a true pleasure to me to see that you are making such progress; and I trust you went³² back to school with the virtuous resolution of doing your level best and winning several prizes which may gladden my heart when I come

he had been named by the Pope Defender of the Faith (Fidei Defensor) — a title which is still borne by the English sovereigns and is to be seen stamped on all English coins. It was in consequence of his having quarrelled with the Pope about the divorce of Queen Catherine and the marriage of Anne Boleyn (the mother of Queen Elizabeth) that this change of view took place.

¹⁾ After a long struggle between king and parliament, the chief point in which was the right to tax the country for the maintenance of the army and the government, Charles I. (son of James I., and grandson to Mary Queen of Scots) was, by a high court of justice, without the concurrence of the lords, sentenced to death and executed in front of the Palace of Whitehall (in London), on January 30, 1649.

home. Always do your duty and fit yourself for a future career of usefulness to your fellow-citizens!

I went up to the sheep-run in the beginning of September, that is early spring with us. Everything was going on well, and there was plenty of the richest grass, also on the new part we bought up last year and which makes the whole of our pasture grounds cover as much as 35,000 acres now. So there is much riding about to be done. Fred is a capital manager. So I did not stop to look after the shearing of the sheep, which will begin in a very few days, if they have not already begun. We hope to shear about 25,000 sheep, which will yield a great deal of fine soft wool. So far the year has been favourable, in the wet season we had no floods to speak of, though at one time we were in great fear lest they should come. As yet we have had no drought this summer, and at present the weather is anything but dry.

I was kept longer than usual at the sheep-run, as I had to look out for an overseer to take Fred's place, since he has definitely made up his mind to go to New Zealand to try his fortune in the bush. I was greatly struck with the appearance of a smart young Scotchman, whom I was fortunate enough to find at Tamworth itself. He once had a farm of his own in Ayrshire. Notwithstanding the fact that he had no recommendation from anybody I know, I have determined to engage him. I do not deny but I may be mistaken in my opinion of his honesty, but I trust not. It was a case either of taking him or of stopping myself.

Towards Christmas time next year, I hope to go and see how Fred has fared in his new home, and then we shall go to Auckland to eat our Christmas turkey and plum-pudding with my old friend Captain Steadman, who has lately retired from the Navy and come to spend the rest of his days in that beautiful and healthy island, the fairyland of sweet flowers, palmy foliage, and mountain waters.

Fred has bought his land, and his first task will be to clear it. This is a very hard job, requiring a great deal of skill; but all his neighbours will help him, and give him the benefit of their experience. For as they received help from others on their arrival, so they always treat new-comers with the same charming courtesy and kindness. But at first one must always put up with a certain amount of hardship; still, after the first difficulties are over, I can't help thinking that Fred will make his way, as he has plenty of energy and pluck about him.

Tell Mr. Vaughan that a few days ago I met Ted Watson, an old College friend of ours. I ran across him most unexpectedly, here in Sydney. He has had a curious life, and you may well take a lesson from his story. He never was at any time studious, and years ago, being young and strong, he determined to emigrate contrary to his parents' wishes, who left him to push his way in the world as he pleased himself. He soon lost all his money, but never, I am happy

to say, gave way to drink, as so many empty-pursed Europeans do here. He always managed to find work to do, sometimes as a stock-rider on a sheep-station, sometimes at the gold-diggings, to which he worked his way from New Zealand as a cook's mate on a small sailing vessel. Perhaps the funniest part of his career was when he kept stables at Napier. Here he knew several people, and driving them in the daytime in his cab, he would dine with them in the evening. At last after a good many years, the influence of Watson's friends at home secured him a government appointment in the South Island; and he is now on a visit to Sydney.

At the beginning of the new year, I shall go to Hongkong and Japan. At the latter wonderful island I shall stop a month and admire the pretty cherry blossoms. In the ordinary course of events I shall travel from Yokohama to Vancouver by the Canadian Line, thus following the all-Red Line round the world on British soil. I went by sea to San Francisco in '93 when I saw the big trees in Yosemite Valley — finer even than the pines in New Zealand. It was the year of the World's Fair at Chicago, where I visited the Slaughtering Houses of the Union Stock Yards. This time I want to see as much as I can of Canada, especially the fruit farms of British Columbia and the wheat fields of Manitoba and Saskatchewan. I shall stop a few days at Winnipeg before I go on to Toronto, where I shall have to discuss several matters with my friend Mr. Hughes, who is Professor of Agriculture in that University. On the same business I may have to go to the States, in which case I should try to cross by the Mauretania or Lusitania. But I sincerely hope this will not be necessary and that I shall be able to carry out my original intention of crossing by one of the European boats from Quebec. I shall probably reach England by the middle of October, just in time to catch a glimpse of the yellow and brown autumn tints which we miss so much here in Australia. By that time the Sandhurst entrance Exam will be far behind you, and I hope I shall find you well on in your career as a cadet at the Royal Military College, looking forward to a commission in the Indian Army. I shall come down to Berkshire to see you. Tim, I suppose, will then be in residence at Oriel College, Oxford.

My old friend, Mr. Vaughan, has been very kind to you, giving you such fine treats; write and give him and Mrs. Vaughan my very best thanks for all their kindness. As I go along, I am collecting all sorts of curiosities for birthday presents; you all will wonder what funny things you will get when I come home.

Give my best thanks and kind remembrances to all who have enquired after me and mention my return in 1911. Work hard and prosper.

Your loving
Father.

APPENDIX.

Leading Dates of English History Classified.

Great Periods.

Celtic Times	before A. D. 43.
Roman Times	43—410.
The Old English (Teutonic) Kingdoms	449—1066.
Feudal Monarchy	1066—1485.
Absolute Monarchy	1485—1688.
Limited (Constitutional) Monarchy	since 1689.

Changes of Race.

The Coming of the Romans	B. C. 55.
The Coming of the English	A. D. 449.
The Coming of the Danes	787.
The Danish Conquest complete	1016.
The Coming of the Normans	1066.

Changes of Dynasty.

The Norman Line	1066—1154.
Plantagenets: House of Anjou	1154—1399.
Plantagenets: House of Lancaster	1399—1461.
Plantagenets: House of York	1461—1485.
House of Tudor	1485—1603.
House of Stuart	1603—1714.
House of (Brunswick) Hanover	1714—1901.
House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	since 1901.

(449)—1066 Old English (Teutonic) Kingdoms in England.

- (449). Vortigern, the British King of Kent, (as the story goes) asks the Jutes to help him against the Picts of the north. — Arrival of Hengist and Horsa, who landed at Ebbsfleet (near Ramsgate), on the shores of the island of Thanet, which, in return for their aid, was given them as a settlement.
597. Augustine, sent as a missionary by Pope Gregory the Great, lands at Ebbsfleet in Kent: first Archbishop of Canterbury.
827. Egbert of Wessex: lord of all England south of the Forth.
- 871—901. Alfred the Great.
- 1016—1042. Danish Supremacy of England; Canute [Knut] the Dane, King of England, 1016—1035.
1066. Edward the Confessor's heir (a descendent of the direct royal line) being thought too young, Harold (son of Godwin, the great Earl of Wessex, and brother of King Edward's widow) was chosen king by the witan ("the wise men"). William of Normandy claimed the throne and defeated Harold in the battle of Senlac Hill (near Hastings).

- 1066—1154. **Norman kings:** William I., the Conqueror; William II., the Red (Rufus); Henry I., Beauclerc; Stephen of Blois.
- 1154—1399. **Plantagenet kings:**
House of Anjou in the direct line: Henry II. Curtmantle; Richard I. Cœur-de-Lion; John Lackland; Henry III. of Winchester, son of John; Edward I. Longshanks; Edward II. Cærnarvon; Edward III. Windsor; Richard II. Bordeaux.
- 1399—1461. **House of Lancaster** (the Red Rose),
a branch line of the house of Plantagenet: Henry IV. Bolingbroke; Henry V. Monmouth; Henry VI. Windsor.
- 1461—1485. **House of York** (the White Rose of York),
a branch line of the house of Plantagenet: Edward IV. York; Edward V.; Richard III. Crookback.
- 1485—1603. **Tudor kings:** Henry VII. Richmond; Henry VIII.; Edward VI.; Mary the Catholic; Elizabeth (Queen Bess 1558—1603).
- 1603—1649 (1714). **Stuart kings:** James I. (son of Mary Queen of Scots), Charles I. († 1649), —, Charles II. (1660—1685), James II. (1685—1688), —, William III. and Mary II., Anne (Stuart) 1702—1714.
- 1714—1901. **House of** (Brunswick or) **Hanover:** George I., George II., George III., George IV., William IV., Victoria (1837—1901).
- 1901 till now: **House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha:** Edward VII. (acceded in 1901).

1901. Death of Queen Victoria: on the 22nd of January, at 6. 30 p. m., the Queen, after a short period of illness, passed away (breathed her last) at Osborne House (in the Isle of Wight), surrounded by her children and grand-children. Among the latter was the German Emperor who, driven by filial piety and setting aside all the cares of his great empire, from amidst the festivities in celebration [of the bicentenary of the Prussian Monarchy, i. e.] of the two hundredth anniversary of the coronation of the first King of Prussia, had hurriedly proceeded to the sick-bed of his august grandmother, who, a few hours before her death, had recognized the several members of the royal family.

On January the 23rd, King Edward VII. was, according to the old traditional forms, publicly proclaimed King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India. His title is as follows, —

a) in the English tongue: Edward VII., by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India; — b) in the Latin tongue: Edwardus VII., Dei gratiâ Britanniarum et terrarum transmarinarum quæ in ditione sunt Britannicâ Rex, Fidei Defensor, Indiæ Imperator.

His Gracious Majesty King Edward VII. in Court Dress.



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In England the wearing of uniforms is much less common than in Germany. Officers in the Army and Navy as a general rule only wear their uniform when actually on duty, or in attendance at ceremonial functions. The King is probably better known to the majority of his subjects in civil dress than in a military uniform.

Conferment of the Oxford D. C. L. upon William II. of Germany, and the German Rhodes Scholars.

In November 1907, the German Emperor's health though not in any way seriously impaired but requiring a temporary change of air and atmosphere after the stress and overwork by state business, it was resolved that his Imperial Majesty should spend a few weeks in the invigorating mild air of the South coast of England. Highcliffe Castle, beautifully situated near Bournemouth, which had been graciously placed at the Emperor's disposal, was chosen as place of residence.

Bournemouth in Hampshire, on Poole Bay in the English Channel, is a fashionable English watering-place and winter-resort, the Gulf Stream making the climate very mild even in winter. Bournemouth, in the sheltered valley of the Bourne, owes much of its salubrity to the luxuriant pine-woods in which it is embosomed. While its sandy beach affords excellent bathing, pleasant walks along the coast in both directions may be taken over the picturesque sandstone cliffs or to the magnificent extensive rhododendron plantations in the neighbourhood.

Before going to Highcliffe Castle, Bournemouth, the German Emperor and Empress went to Windsor on a visit to the King and Queen of England. While staying at Windsor Castle as a guest of King Edward, the Emperor received, on the fifteenth of November, a deputation from Oxford University, headed by Lord Curzon of Kedleston, Chancellor of the University, who conferred upon his Majesty the honorary degree of D. C. L. [Doctor of Civil Law]. Lord Curzon, in presenting the degree, referred to manifestations of the Emperor's friendly interest in the University. The Emperor, in reply, expressed the great satisfaction with which he received the degree, and said that it had been his special pleasure to select the scholars of German nationality who, under the provisions of the late Cecil Rhodes's will ¹⁾, were enabled to enjoy the great benefit of Oxford teaching.

¹⁾ It is with a view of fostering a somewhat ideal union of the English-speaking people throughout the world, and of encouraging a friendly understanding of the Anglo-Saxon and German races, that Cecil Rhodes bequeathed to the University of Oxford the greater part of the enormous fortune which he had amassed in the British colonies. By his will (1899), there have been created at Oxford sixty colonial scholarships of £ 300 each per annum, — and in addition to these two scholarships for each of the fifty states or territories of the United States of America; and fifteen of the value of £ 250 per annum for German students, who are to be nominated by the Kaiser.

"My desire being — says Cecil Rhodes in his will — that the students who shall be elected to the scholarship shall not be merely book-worms, I direct

The following paragraph extracted from the Times of November the 16th, 1907, gives a full description of the ceremony of the conferment of the Oxford D. C. L. At five o'clock in the afternoon [of Nov. 15th, 1907] a deputation from Oxford attended at the Castle to confer upon the Emperor the degree of Doctor of Civil Law. With the exception of Lord Curzon, the Chancellor, who arrived earlier in the day, the members of the deputation, travelled by the train reaching Windsor at 3 40, and, having robed, drove to the Castle. On arriving at the Castle the deputation was conducted to the Vandyck Room. Here the members grouped themselves in a semi-circle, the Chancellor standing in front. At five o'clock the German Emperor, who wore the red gown of a D. C. L. over the uniform of a British field-marshal, entered the room attended by the English and German members of his suite, who included Lord Roberts, the German Foreign Minister, and the German Ambassador. No members of the English Royal Family were present. The Emperor took up his position facing the Chancellor, the members of the suite standing behind his Majesty, and the proceedings began.

The Chancellor, in presenting the diploma, said: —

Sire, — The deputation which you see before you, and which is representative of the various faculties in the University of Oxford, has journeyed from Oxford this afternoon to ask your Majesty's acceptance of the degree of Doctor of Civil Law, and it falls to my lot, as Chancellor of the University, to make the presentation on its behalf. When it was announced that your Majesty was about to pay a visit to England (a visit that has been marked by so many demonstrations of public rejoicing, and is likely to be attended by the happiest results), the University of Oxford at once sought the opportunity of honouring itself at the same time that it offered to your Majesty the highest academic distinction which it is in its power to bestow. That distinction has already been accepted by our own gracious Sovereign, by the Heir to the Throne, and by various crowned heads. It was accepted, I believe, by illustrious predecessors of your Majesty in your own Royal House. But it has never been offered on an occasion where the sentiments of the Uni-

that, in the election of a student to a scholarship, regard shall be had to: — 1. his literary and scholastic attainments, — 2. his fondness of, and success in, manly outdoor sports, such as cricket, football, and the like, — 3. his qualities of manhood, truth, courage, devotion to duty, sympathy for and protection of the weak, kindness, unselfishness, and fellowship, — 4. his exhibition, during school-days, of moral force of character and of instincts to lead and to take an interest in his schoolmates, for those latter attributes will be likely in after-life to guide him to esteem the performance of public duties as his ideal aim.

versity were in closer harmony with the feelings and desires of the nation at large. Furthermore, the University of Oxford feels that it has a special case for joining in the national welcome to your Majesty on the present occasion. We do not forget the friendly telegrams which you used to send, year after year, to our Oxford crew in their annual aquatic contest on the Thames. We are aware of the keen personal interest that is taken by you in the selection of the German Rhodes Scholars, whom we have recently welcomed as a valuable and invigorating element in our academic life, and we can assure your Majesty that had you been able to come to Oxford yourself, as we hope that you may yet do at some future date, you would have met with a reception at the hands of the graduates and undergraduates alike not inferior in warmth, or, I may add, in vigour of expression, to any that may have been accorded to you by similar institutions in your own country. But, above all, in asking your Majesty to accept this degree, we feel that we are offering such respect as lies in our power not merely to the great Sovereign of a great people (a friendly and allied and related people), who is himself a member of our Royal House, but that we are seeking to connect with our ancient and historic University an enthusiastic lover of the sciences and patron of the arts — one, moreover, who, by the high ideals that he has pursued and the noble personal example that he has set in a reign now happily beginning to be long, has appreciably raised the standard of duty and patriotism both amid his own people and among the nations of Europe. It is in this spirit that we of the University of Oxford approach your Majesty this afternoon, and ask your gracious acceptance of the degree conferred by the diploma which I have the honour to present.

The Emperor in reply said:

Chancellor of the University of Oxford and Gentlemen, — It is difficult for me to find words adequately to express the feeling of satisfaction with which I have received from you the degree of Doctor of Civil Law of the University of Oxford. I have much regretted that lack of time would not permit my personally visiting Oxford. It would have afforded me sincere satisfaction to revisit that venerable and historical site of English learning, which I well remember having seen and admired when I accompanied my parents on a former occasion.

When I remember that my beloved father, my venerated grandfather, and a number of celebrated countrymen of mine have, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, received the same honour, it adds to my sincere appreciation of to-day's ceremony.

At all times, but especially in our present age, the standard of

culture and education attained by a country must be looked upon as one of the chief factors upon which the development, both moral and material, of a people is founded. The University of Oxford may be proud that it has pursued this lofty task for centuries, and that it has fulfilled it for England in a most effective manner. It is evident that the influence of such an institution as the University of Oxford must reach far beyond the frontiers of the Mother Country.

It is for these reasons that I feel so great a satisfaction at having received this degree from your University.

But there is one other tie which connects me to the University of Oxford.

The donation of your great countryman Cecil Rhodes enables scholars, not only from the British Colonies, but also from Germany and the United States, to profit by the education at Oxford. It has been my special pleasure to select, in accordance with Rhodes's will, scholars of German nationality who are enabled by his generosity to enjoy the great benefits of Oxford teaching.

The opportunity given to young Germans to associate with young Englishmen during their studies is the pleasing result of the broad views of Rhodes. Under the fostering care of the *alma mater* of Oxford the young people will be given the opportunity of studying the character and qualities of their respective nations, thereby promoting good fellowship amongst themselves, as well as helping to create an atmosphere of mutual respect and friendship between our two countries.

I beg again to thank you, Chancellor and gentlemen, for the distinction conferred on me to-day. —

At the conclusion of his speech the Chancellor handed to the Emperor the diploma of Doctor of Civil Law, which was engrossed in Latin on parchment. The document was illuminated in blue and gold, the letters being in the style of the 16th century. Attached to the diploma was the seal of the University contained in a case. The following was the text of the document:

Cancellarius Magistri et Scholares Universitatis Oxoniensis omnibus ad quos præsentēs litteræ pervenerint salutem in Domino sempiternam.

Cum Princeps Augustissimus, Wilhelmus II., Imperator Germanus, pacis artium haud minus quam rei militaris peritus, nomen suum illustrissimis quibus Fasti nostri inclarescunt ordinibus adscribi voluerit, nos Cancellarius Magistri et Scholares, tum ob eximiam qua ipse fruitur dignitatem tum ob intimam cum regia nostra domo cognationem, eundem Principem, vi et virtute præsentis Diplomatis, creamus et constituimus Doctorem in Iure Civili eumque omnibus iuribus et privilegiis quæ ad talem gradum spectant frui atque gaudere volumus.

Datum in Domo nostra Convocationis die IX. mens. Novemb. A.S. MCMVII.

The Kaiser as a D. C. L. of Oxford.



His Imperial Majesty the German Emperor William II. in the Windsor Uniform with his D. C. L. robes.

The portrait of the German Emperor, which has been painted by Professor Schwarz, of Berlin, represents his Majesty in the robes of a D. C. L., the degree that Oxford University has conferred upon him *honoris causa*.

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The Chancellor then presented the members of the deputation to the Emperor in order of seniority, beginning with the Vice-Chancellor and ending with the registrar, and his Majesty conversed personally with a number of them. Among other things he inquired what was the duty of the proctors, and was told that it was to keep order, at which he was rather amused. To the Vice-Chancellor he spoke of Professor Max Müller, whom he described as a delightful man and a very old friend, adding that it was to him that he always sent his telegrams about the Boat-race, because the professor was his friend. His Majesty also spoke of having stayed with Dean Liddell. At the close of the ceremony the Chancellor repeated the invitation which he had given in the course of his speech to his Majesty to visit Oxford on the occasion of his next stay in this country. The Emperor in conversation said that he was pleased with the progress made by the Rhodes Scholars. The ceremony lasted only twenty minutes. —

The engraving on page 91 is a reproduction of the painting by Professor Alfred Schwarz, of Berlin, which has been presented as his Majesty's gift to the University of Oxford. In his portrait the artist supposes the Emperor to stand — not in a room of Windsor Castle, but — in a hall of the Oxford University buildings, wearing under his D. C. L. robes civilian court dress with the decorations of the Order of the Garter, the highest order of knighthood in Great Britain.

The insignia of the order of the garter are: a) the Garter, which is the especial distinguishing badge of the order, — b) the Collar, — c) the George i. e. the figure of St. George (the patron saint of England) on horseback, appended to the collar, — d) the Star (with the inscription: 'Hony soit qui mal y pense').

The order of the garter (often popularly called 'The Star and Garter') was instituted by King Edward III. (1327—1377). According to legend, Joan Countess of Salisbury accidentally slipped her garter at a court ball. It was picked up by her royal partner, Edward III., who gallantly diverted the attention of the guests from the lady by binding the blue band round his own knee, saying, as he did so, "Hony soit qui mal y pense" (i. e. evil be to him who evil thinks. — Hony is an old spelling for honni, the past participle of the French verb honnir, which means to dishonour, to defame).

SUPPLEMENT.

1. What is this? This is a book. — What are these? These are (two) books.

What is that? That is the window. — What are those? Those are windows.

The wall, the floor, the ceiling, the door, the table, the chair, the desk, the black-board. — The chalk, a piece of chalk, the chalk-box. — The sponge, the wiping-cloth (or: duster).

What is this? This is a boy (a girl). — What are these? These are (two) boys (girls). — Show me a boy. This is a boy. — Show me three boys. These are three boys.

Is this a book? Yes, it is. No, it is not.

2. Where is the master's desk? It is on the platform. — Where are the boys' desks? They are on the floor. — Where are you? We are (I am) in the school-room.

3. What do you see in the school-room? In the school-room we see (I see) four walls, three windows, three pair of curtains, the gas-fixtures¹⁾, the electric light fittings, a cupboard, a thermometer, a waste-paper-box, (an easel with) a black-board, a ventilator, a mapstand, maps, pictures, drawings, and the heating apparatus.

4. Where am I going? You are going to the door. — Where am I now? You are at the door.

5. Two boys get up from their seats and go to the window. What do they do? — Now they come back from the window and go to their seats again. Where are they now? They are in their seats. — Are you in your seat? Yes, sir, I am in my seat. (No, sir, I am not in my seat, I am at the window). — One boy goes to the door, opens it, goes out of the room (leaves the room) and shuts the door; then he knocks at the door and (when he hears the master say "Come in", he) comes in again. What does he do?

6. Are there any curtains in this room? Yes, sir, there are. No, sir, there are not (there are no curtains here). — Master to a boy: Go to the window and draw the curtains and tell us what you are doing. — Boy: I get up from my seat, I go to the window, I draw the curtains and sit down again in my seat. — Two boys: We get up from our seats, etc.

Master: Stand up, my boy. Boy: I stand up. — Master: Stand up, boys. Boys: We stand up.

Tell your neighbour to get up and ask him what he does (ask him to tell you what he does), — tell him yourself what he does, — tell me what he does (what he is doing).

¹⁾ or: gas-fittings, viz. [namely] four gas-pendants (gas-chandeliers) and two gas-brackets.

Conjugate: I am sitting now, I do not keep sitting, I get up, I stand, I sit down again. — Yesterday I was sitting in my seat, but when the master entered, I did not keep sitting, I got up and stood on my feet, and only sat down when the master told us to do so. — At the same hour to-morrow, I shall be sitting in my seat again: I shall not keep sitting, I shall get up and stand on my feet, and then I shall sit down again.

7. When do you open the window? I open it when it is too hot in the room. — Is it hot now, or is it cold? It is all right, sir. — Are all the windows shut? No, sir, they are not. — How many are open? — When do you open the windows? I open them during the intervals; during school-hours only when I am told to do so by the master (teacher). — When are the curtains drawn (closed)? They are drawn at night, or when there is too much sun. — ['To draw the curtains' has two meanings: 1) to draw them back (or aside), to withdraw them sideways, — 2) to draw them forward in front of the window, to close them. — Blinds, which are mounted on a roller, are pulled up or lowered (let down)].

8. Count from one to twelve. Count backward from twenty to naught. Count forward from a hundred to a hundred and thirteen. Count up to fifteen. Count all the desks, all the tables, all the boys in this room. There are eighteen desks and sixteen boys in this room. There is only one table in this room. Three is an odd number, and four is an even number. Name all the odd numbers from one to nine, and sum them up.

How many panes of glass are there in each window? There are eight panes of glass in each window. Count all the panes of glass (all the window-frames, all the picture-frames) in this room. — There is only one pointer in this room and one stick for hanging up maps.

9. Look at the chalk. What colour is it? The chalk is white. It is white. — Look at the walls. What colour are they? They are green. — What objects in this room are brown, gray, black? Count how many red objects you see in this room.

A special shade of red is crimson, which is a deep red somewhat purple: the cheeks of people blushing from shame sometimes become (turn) crimson (sometimes pale). Another degree of red is pink. It is not a dark red but a vivid light red, like the colour of the pink-flower, which is quite different from the fleshy tints of carnations.

The seven primary colours of a ray of light are: red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, violet. — We see the same colours in a rainbow. How many rainbow-colours do we speak of (of how many rainbow-colours do we speak)? Name them, beginning with violet. — When do we see a rainbow? We see it when it rains in front of us, and when the sun shines behind us. — **Conjugate:** I see a rainbow, when it rains in front of me and when the sun shines behind me.

10. Where do we see a rainbow? In the sky. What colour is the sky on a fine day? What colour are the clouds on a dark day? Look up to the sky and tell us if you see any clouds there now. What sort of weather is it? Do you see the sun? Does it shine? Does the sun shine now? Does it rain? Is it a dark day? It is not a very bright day. It is a fine day, a nice morning, a fine afternoon. It is cloudy and very unsettled. Will it clear up? I am afraid not. I am afraid we shall have rain, a thunderstorm with (flashes of) lightning. It is sultry.

11. These are three pencils; this is a red pencil, this is a blue pencil, this is a black pencil. — The black pencil is long, the blue pencil is longer, the red pencil is the longest. — Is the black pencil longer than the red pencil? No, sir, it is not; it is shorter than the red pencil. Which pencil is shorter, the red one or the black one? Which is the shortest?

These are two desks; this desk is as large as that desk. — Is this desk as large as that desk? Yes, sir, it is. — Is this window as large as the door? No, sir, it is not; it is smaller than the door. — Is this wall longer (higher) than that wall? — Is the chair as high as the table?

The window is not so large as the door. — Here are two boys, Dick and Charley. Dick is tall, Charley is short. Which of the two boys is taller (shorter)? Is Charley as tall as Dick? No, sir, he is not; he is not so tall as Dick is.

Learn: larger **than** . . . , as large as . . . , **not so large as** . . .

12. Who (what person) sits in front of you? J. sits in front of me. — Whom (what person) do you see in front of you? I see J. in front of me. — Who sits behind you? G. sits behind me. — Who sits at your right hand, Alfred? — (Who is your right-hand desk-neighbour, Alfred?) Charles sits at my right hand; he is my right-hand desk-neighbour; he sits beside me. — Who sits at your left? Arthur sits at my left; he sits beside me. — Between whom do you sit? I sit between Charles and Arthur. — Where do I stand? On the platform. Where do I sit? On the chair.

What number is your seat, Alfred? My seat is number twelve. What number is your friend Arthur's seat? His seat is number thirteen; he sits below me. My friend Charles sits above me; his seat is number eleven.

I keep my feet on the floor under the desk, and my hands on the desk. Over (above) my head I see the ceiling. I sit under the ceiling. Round me there are the walls. The floor is under the feet.

These two boys are (sitting) at their tables. How many boys are (sitting) at their tables? — How many boys are under the table? There are none under the table; there are no boys under the table; there is no boy under the table. — How many boys are on the table? There are none on the table; there are no boys on the table; there is no boy on the table.

I look up to the ceiling, I look down to my feet. I look at the master's lips. I do not look back behind me during school-hours. Looking round me, I see the four walls. Having lost one of my pens, I now look for it (= I try to find it again).

The master takes the chalk out of the box, he puts it on the table, he puts it back into the box; now it is in the box.

Alfred comes up from the playground; he goes up the stairs, passes along the corridor, walks towards the door of his class-room, stops before the door and waits for his friend Arthur at the door. Arthur comes after him; now they are on the threshold; they pass through the door and step into the room. Now they are in the room; they go to their seats, they sit down in their seats; they sit down among all the other boys. Alfred sits between Arthur and Charles.

I am at the door. I open the window. I am looking out of the window. I shut the window. The window is shut, so I look through the window-panes. Upon what does the window look (or open)? It looks (opens) upon (or into) the yard; it does not look (open) upon (into) the street.

Come up here and look through the window. What do you see? I see the courtyard, the garden (with shrubs, trees, plants, and flowers), the gymnasium, and the front-house. And what do you see over the house? Over the house I see the sky and the clouds. And what do you see beyond the wall?

Do you know the letters of the English alphabet? Can you say them off? On what page of our book do you find them? What is the first (last) letter of the alphabet? With what letter does the English alphabet begin (end)? What is the third letter of the alphabet? C is after B; B is before C. Before what letter is B? After what letter is C? What letter is between A and C? — After 1 comes 2; between 1 and 3 is number 2. What number comes before 11?

13. Who lights the gas? The school-servant lights it when it gets dark. It is not dark now, it is light (it is day-light) now; the sun shines. — With what does he light it? (What does he light it with?) He lights it with a lamp-lighter, — with a match (a lucifer match, a safety match. These matches are made of wood. Instead of wooden matches many people use vestas. A vesta is a wax friction match; it has taken its name from Vesta, the virgin goddess of the domestic hearth and fire among the ancient Romans.) — He turns it out when all the boys have left the room.

How is gas turned on and out (off)? By means of a tap. Electric light is switched on and off.

Where electric light is used, there are electric light fittings, which are either brackets or chandeliers or simple lamps hanging on a wire. Care must be taken not to touch the burners, which break easily, and

which, if screwed loosely (if not screwed tight enough), will fail to connect the wires. — Finding that a burner is not powerful enough (does not give light enough), one can easily unscrew it, and replace it by one (and screw on another) of greater candle-power.

What candle-power is your reading-lamp? It is 16 candle-power (it gives a light equal to that of 16 candles). — Is yours a hanging-lamp or a standing-lamp? Well, it can be used for either purpose; and as there is a long wire attached to it which connects it with the switch, I can easily move it about. — The electric wires running against the ceiling are often protected simply by silk threads, whereas those running up (down) the walls are enclosed in a tubing (casing).

14. Where is the window? The window is here — is there. — Where are your books? Most of my books are in my bag which is in my desk; but the English Scholar, my English copy-book, and the note-book in which I write my lessons for next time are on the desk in front of me. — My penholder is in the groove of the desk, near the inkwell (inkpot).

Where is your overcoat (your hat)? It is on my hook (peg) in the corridor outside the school-room. Are the hooks numbered? What is your number? — Is the umbrella-stand outside or inside the class-room?

15. Who made the wall? The bricklayer made it. — What does the bricklayer make? He makes walls and houses; he is an artisan who lays bricks (who builds with bricks). — The carpenter made the window-frame; the glazier set the panes of glass. The bookbinder bound the book. The locksmith made the locks and keys.

The tailor makes coats, jackets, waistcoats, trousers; the shoemaker makes shoes, boots, and slippers; the glove-maker makes gloves; the miller makes flour; the baker makes bread; the tanner makes leather; the hatter makes hats; the brewer brews beer. — Does not the tailor make clothes?

Pins and needles and many other articles are made by machines.

The butcher sells meat; he sells different sorts of meat, such as beef, veal, mutton, pork, and lamb, which he receives fresh every day from the municipal slaughter house (abattoir), where all the animals have to be killed.

Beef is the flesh of oxen which is boiled or roasted. Beef is the meat from the ox, veal from the calf, mutton from the sheep, pork from the pig, lamb from the lamb.

Where do you get (buy) your paper and copy-books? I get them at the stationer's [shop]. The stationer also sells pens, pencils, blotting-paper, note-paper, envelopes, black-lines, drawing-pins (thumb-tacks), compasses, T-squares, gummed labels, sealing-wax, picture post-cards, etc.

The grocer sells tea, sugar, coffee, and other things which come from far-off countries; and sometimes butter, eggs, cheese; the green-

grocer sells all sorts of vegetables, such as potatoes and cabbage. He also sells fruit, such as apples, pears, plums, cherries, gooseberries, raspberries, strawberries, currants, peaches, apricots, oranges.

The photographer takes people's photographs (likenesses). People go to the photographer to have their likeness (photograph, photo) taken. Did you ever get (have) your photo taken? What did you pay the dozen? What size was the photograph, was it small size, large size, cabinet-size? Were you taken full face or side-face (profile)? Last term our whole class had their likenesses taken in the playground. We were all photographed in one group. Did you get a photograph of that group? Yes, Sir, I did; I bought one of them; I keep it on my writing-table in my study.

Photographers call themselves artists; bricklayers, carpenters, glaziers are artisans; butchers, grocers, stationers are tradesmen or tradespeople. Is the locksmith an artist or an artisan?

16. What is the desk made of? It is made of wood. — What are the pipes of the heating-apparatus made of? They are made of iron. — What metals do you know? I know tin, zinc, steel, silver, gold, copper, nickel, platinum, etc. Aluminium is light, lead is heavy.

Lift this mapstand and tell me whether it is heavy or light. How many pounds do you think it weighs? It weighs about seven lbs. (pounds). This book weighs only a few ounces, only half an ounce. An ounce is the sixteenth part of a pound. A common English pound is less than a German pound; it is equal to $453 \cdot 6$ grammes. How many grammes are there in a German pound? How many grammes then is an English pound less than a German pound? How much does your desk-neighbour weigh? About eight stone. A stone is fourteen lbs.

17. What is the cupboard opened with (With what is the cupboard opened)? It is opened with a key. The key is put in the lock — in the key-hole of the lock; it is turned round to the right, and then the cupboard opens. How must you turn the key if you want to lock the cupboard? — A key is also used in winding up one's watch; most watches, however, are keyless now.

18. Show me your book. — This is (Here is) my book. — Is this your book? No, sir; it is not. — Whose book is it? It is yours. It is my desk-neighbour's. It is his. — Which is your book? This one is my book; it is mine.

Show me your books. — How many are they? They are five. — How many of them are there? There are five of them. — Do these books belong to you? No, sir, they do not, they belong to my neighbour; they belong to him, they are his.

19. What domestic animals do you know? I do not know many; I only know a few: the dog, the cat, the horse, the ox, the cow, the calf, the donkey, the mule, the goat, the sheep, the pig, the cock, the

hen, the goose, the duck, the turkey, the pea-cock. — Ask your neighbour what names of wild animals he knows. He knows the following ones: the lion, the tiger, the fox, the wolf, the bear. — Which is the more intelligent animal, the cat or the dog? Which is the more useful animal, the pig or the donkey?

20. There are three kingdoms in Nature: the animal kingdom, the vegetable kingdom, and the mineral kingdom. What objects belonging to the mineral kingdom do you notice in the class-room? — What kingdom does a string belong to? It belongs to the vegetable kingdom, because it is made of hemp, which is a plant.

Rice belongs to the vegetable kingdom. In hot countries rice is the chief article of food and is said to support nearly one third of the human race. In many countries rice takes the place of bread. Bread is chiefly made of wheat, or sometimes of rye, barley, or oats. The other cereals are: buckwheat and maize (the latter being called Indian corn or simply corn in America).

21. We have got five senses: taste, smell, touch or feeling, hearing, and sight or seeing. We taste with our tongue and palate. We smell with our nose. We touch or feel mostly with our fingers and hands; but all parts of our skin can feel more or less. We hear with our ears. We see with our eyes.

We say, therefore, that the tongue and palate are the organs of taste; the nose, the organ of smell; the hands, the organs of touch; the ears, the organs of hearing; the eyes, the organs of sight (seeing). The word organ is of Greek origin; it signifies tool or instrument.

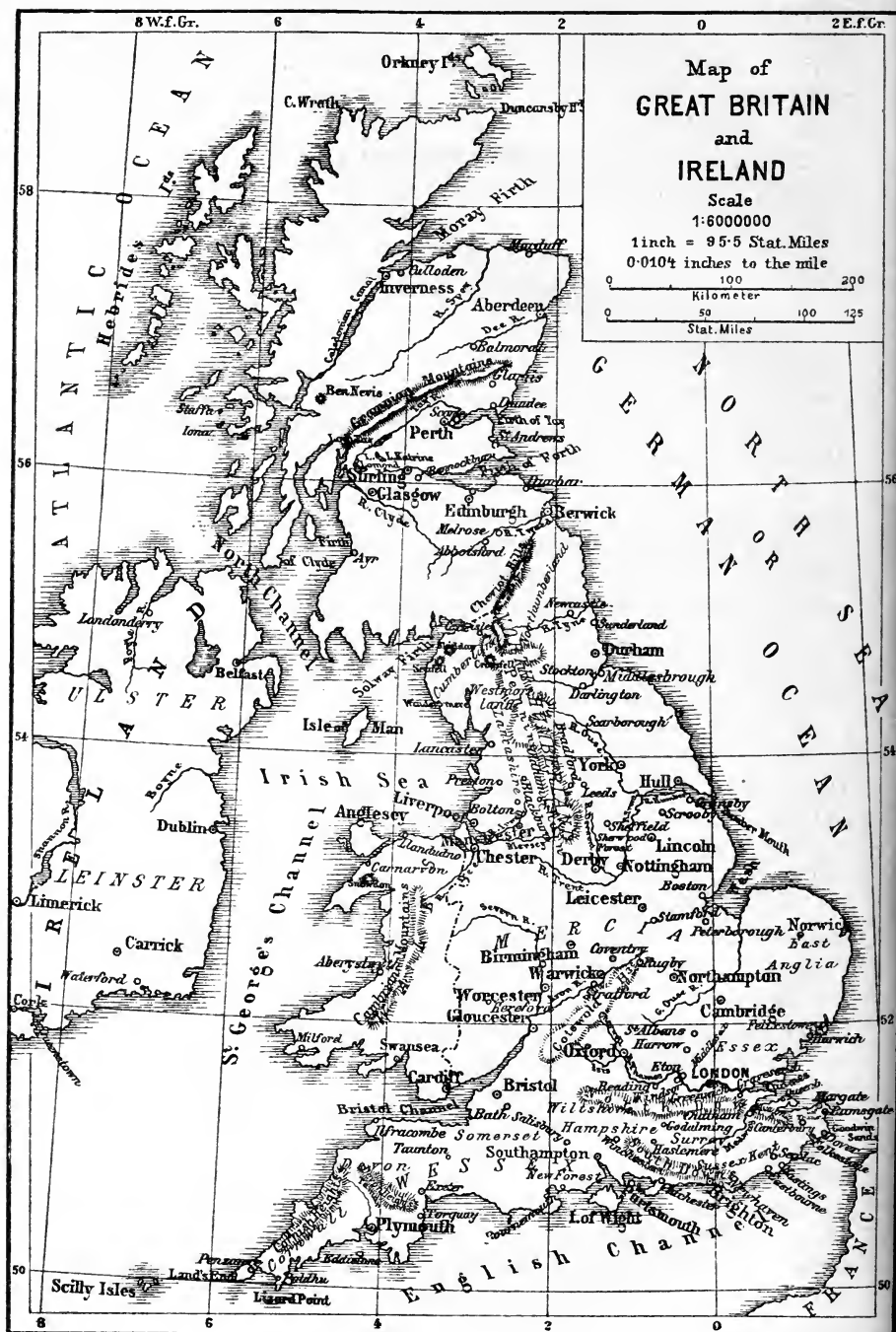
What are people called who cannot see? — They are called blind. Those who cannot hear, are deaf. Dumb persons cannot speak; a deaf and dumb person neither hears nor speaks.

We walk, jump, and dance with our legs and feet; we walk forward, and backward, fast or slowly.

We speak with the mouth and the throat. The nose, the lips (the upper lip, the lower lip), the teeth, the tongue, the palate, the uvula, and the larynx, all help to form the speech-sounds. We speak loud or low.

We climb with our arms and legs. The parts of the arm are the upper arm, the elbow, the lower arm, the wrist, and the hand with the five fingers: the thumb, fore-finger, middle-finger, ring-finger, and little finger. At the end of each finger there is a nail. — The parts of the leg are the thigh, knee, calf and shin, ankle, and foot with the toes. — We write with our right hand; but some people use their left hand and arm with more dexterity than the right, they are called left-handed.

The head, the face, the hair, the shoulders, the belly, the chest, the lungs, the heart are other parts of our body. — What are the chief parts of the human body? The head, the trunk, the limbs. — The head is joined to the trunk by the neck. — Which is the thickest



finger? What is the thinnest called? — What colour is H.'s hair? Is his hair brown? What colour are his eyes? — This is R.'s shoulder. I am putting my hand on R.'s shoulder. What am I doing? Put your hand on R.'s shoulder. How many shoulders has R.? Show me his left shoulder. Tell Bob what you were doing.

The watch and the clock also have a face and two hands. The short hand marks the hours and the long one marks the minutes. The face of a clock (or of a watch) is also called its dial: a clock-dial, a watch-dial. A sun-dial is an instrument to show the time of the day, by means of a shadow cast by the sun. — Tables have legs. Most tables have four legs. Can a table stand on two legs?

22. The four cardinal points of the compass are North, South, East, and West. The needle of the compass is a magnet; it always points to the north. Shadows are long in the morning and evening; they are shortest at noon. Where do the shadows point to in the morning? The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.

23. The earth has the shape of a round ball, or globe. The outside, or surface, of the earth is made of land and water, but about three fourths of it is water. The earth turns on its axis in 24 hours; it makes a revolution round the sun once a year.

A plan of either all, or only part of, the surface of the earth is called a map. If you face a map, you have north at the top of the map, south at the bottom, east at the right-hand side, and west at the left-hand side of the map.

24. The degrees of latitude (north or south) are reckoned from the equator; the degrees of longitude (east or west) are reckoned from the meridian of Greenwich (11, 31). — Greenwich is famous for its observatory and for the Royal Naval College. It is from the meridian of Greenwich Observatory that English astronomers make their calculations; and it is by telegraphic communication with Greenwich Observatory that uniformity of time is maintained throughout the country. — The standard time (or normal time) for England is reckoned by the instant when, at midday, the centre of the sun passes over the meridian of Greenwich. — Every degree of longitude East is four minutes earlier, every degree West is four minutes later. — As the Central European time, which was introduced into Germany in 1893, is reckoned by the fifteenth degree East (the meridian under which Gœrlitz, in Silesia, and Stargard, in Pomerania, lie), German standard time differs by sixty minutes from West European or Greenwich time. — In France they have Paris time. Paris being situated at Long. $2^{\circ} 15'$ (two degrees fifteen minutes) East (from Greenwich), French people have noon nine minutes before their English friends, and fifty-one minutes after their German neighbours. — What time do English (French) clocks show when the time is twelve o'clock noon in Germany?

25. There are five belts, or zones, which you see marked on the Map of the World, or on the globe: the torrid or hot zone (on either side of the equator), the north temperate zone (north of the tropic of cancer), the south temperate zone (south of the tropic of capricorn), the north frigid or frozen zone (near the north pole, within the arctic circle), and the south frigid zone (near the south pole, within the antarctic circle).

26. If we turn the globe until it shows the British Isles exactly in the centre facing us, and make a map of this half of the globe, we shall see that nearly all the land in the world is shown in this map. — Thus the position of the British Islands is seen to be in the centre of the great land masses of the globe. And this position, with Europe on one side and America on the other, enables Great Britain to trade easily with most of the chief ports in the world.

The political name for designating the British Isles is Great Britain and Ireland, which name has been given them ever since January 1, 1801, when William Pitt united the British and Irish Parliaments (the Parliament at Westminster and the Parliament at Dublin). Since that time the British Jack (the British flag or the 'Union Jack') has been in use in the form it still has to-day.

Great Britain consists of North Britain or Scotland, and South Britain or England (with the principality of Wales). — Great Britain is bounded on the east by the strait of Dover and the North Sea (or: the German Ocean); on the north by the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, the North Channel, the Irish Sea, and St. George's Channel; on the south by the English Channel. The Irish Sea separates Ireland from Great Britain. The Solway Firth, the Cheviot Hills (9,29), and the river Tweed separate England from Scotland. —

The highest mountain in Great Britain is Ben Nevis (in Scotland 9,37), it is 4406 feet (= 1347 meters) high; the highest mountain south of the Clyde is Snowdon (in Wales 9,30; 3571 ft or 1100 m above the level of the sea). — The mountainous part of Scotland is called the Scottish Highlands, its southern part the Lowlands (the Lowland Plain and the Lowland Hills). The most mountainous region of England is the English Lake District, which is very picturesque (in Cumberland, Westmoreland, and part of Lancashire). The chief mountain-ranges of England are: — the Cheviot Hills, the Pennine Chain, the Cumbrian Mountain Group, the Devon and the Cornish Heights, and (south of the Thames) the North Downs and the South Downs; — in Wales: the Cambrian Mountains.

Show me Greenwich on the map of your atlas. — I cannot find it, sir. I know it is about four miles east of London. So small a place is not marked on a map of such a small scale as mine. — What scale is yours? Mine is on the scale of 1:4,500,000 (*read: one to four million*

five hundred thousand), of 6 inches to a mile. Have you not got an inset on your map of England, with a plan of London on it? — And on what scale is the wall-map (class-room map)?

27. England enjoys a regular sea-climate (insular climate). The climate of England is mild and changeable, but healthy. The air is moist, rains are frequent, but not heavy. The very hot summers and the very cold winters of continental climate are unknown in England. The weather is not too hot in summer, nor too cold in winter for outdoor work. The seas, the Gulf Stream, and the warm winds help to give England a very temperate climate. London, which has a great many bright days of sunshine in summer, is frequently visited in winter by a dark yellow fog, popularly called pea-soup. This brown London fog is hardly ever found outside of London, although there is, in winter, a great deal of mist throughout the country.

28. The river Thames (11,₂₁), which rises (has its source) in the Cotswold Hills near Gloucester (11,₂₃), flows (empties itself, falls) into the North Sea. Important towns on its banks are: Oxford, Reading (9,₂₁), Henley, Windsor, London, Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend. It also flows by Eton, which is noted for its college. Eton is situated on the left bank of the Thames; Windsor, which lies opposite, is situated on the right bank of the river.

Tributaries of the river Thames are: the Cherwell near Oxford, and the Medway, which empties into the estuary of the Thames. An estuary is a wide river-mouth up which the tide flows.

The river Thames is important for trade, because 1. it is navigable nearly its whole length, so that boats can ply almost to its source, — 2. canals have been made from it in all directions, — 3. the tides ebb and flow for a long distance inland, and enable large ships to reach London, — 4. its ports are convenient for traffic to the Continent.

29. What other English rivers flowing eastward (towards the east) do you know? Into what gulf does the great (the little) Ouse flow?

A channel, which is a narrow part of the sea, is made by nature; a canal, which is an artificial inland water course, is made by man. To serve the purposes of inland navigation an immense number of canals have been constructed in England. The productive coal, iron, and industrial districts are all connected with the great canal-system centres of Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, which, in their turn, are linked up with London through canals with the Trent, the Mersey, and the Severn.

Most English rivers have short courses; their descent is slow, not steep and rapid. Their beds, mostly shallow, are frequently artificially deepened by raised banks (with tow-paths). Rivers crossing (flowing through) lakes are seldom in England; they are more frequently found in Ireland, the chief one being the Shannon, running through (long tracts of peat-bog and) several Irish loughs.

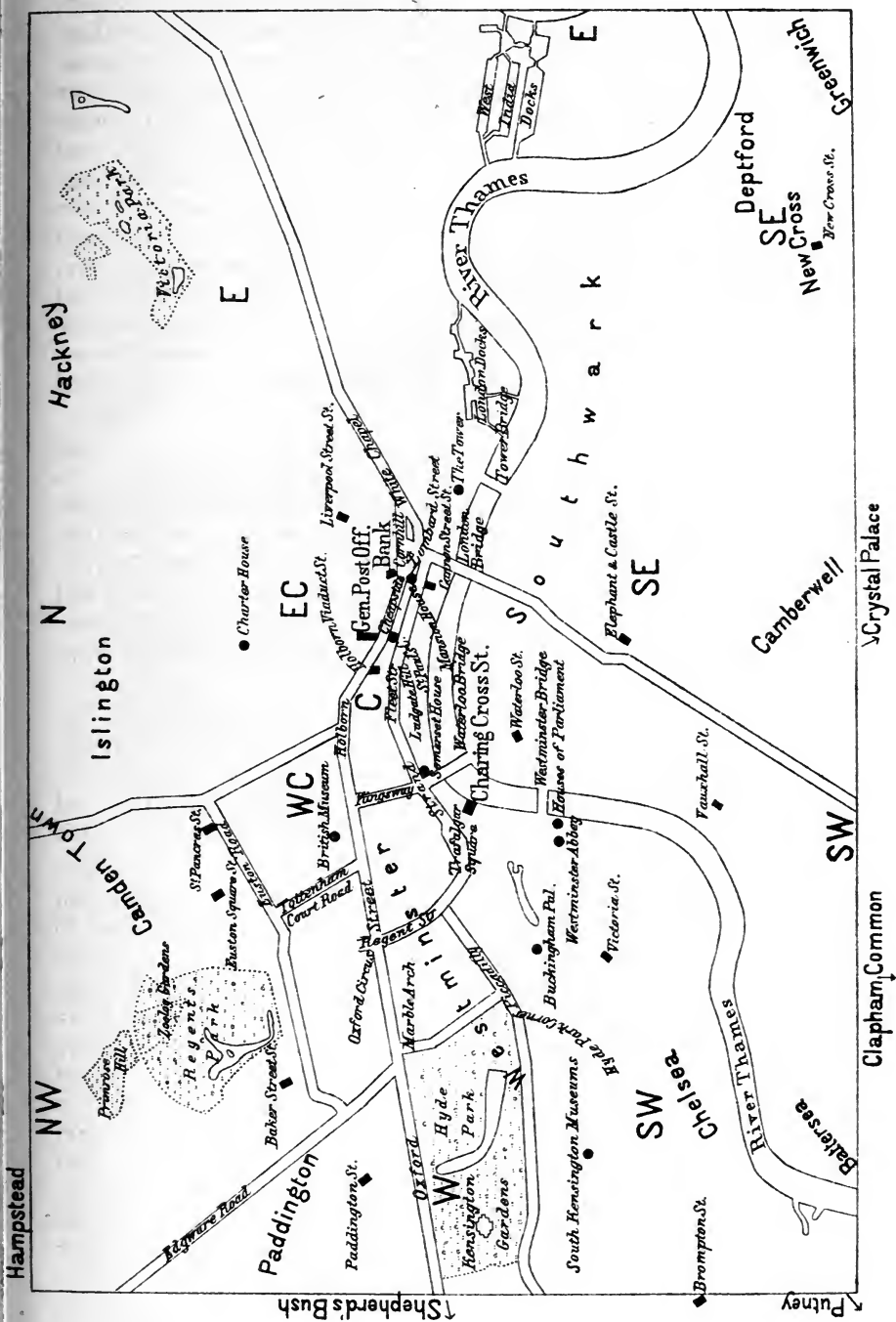
30. As the large ocean steamers go up the Thames as far as London Bridge (9,²⁰), London may be called a seaport. It is indeed the greatest seaport as well as the greatest commercial centre in the whole world. Other great commercial seaports are: — a) in England: Liverpool, Newcastle-on-Tyne, Hull (on the Humber, in Yorkshire), and Southampton; — b) in Wales: Cardiff; — c) in Scotland: Glasgow (on the Clyde). — Of lesser importance (though still very considerable) are the following commercial seaports: — a) in England: Middlesbrough (Yorkshire), Harwich (Essex), Queenborough, Dover, Folkestone (these three in Kent), Newhaven (Sussex), Bristol (on the Avon, which is connected with the Bristol channel); b) in Wales: Swansea; — c) in Scotland: Leith, the port of Edinburgh; — d) in Ireland: Cork, Dublin, Belfast. — The place of Southampton, which is the foremost mail-packet station for America, the Far East, and South Africa, is of interest from the fact that the North German Lloyd steamers touch (call) there on their way between Bremen and New York. Some of them also call at Dover now.

31. London, the capital of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, is the largest city in the world. It is larger than Berlin, Vienna, and Paris taken together. The second largest city in the United Kingdom is Glasgow, in Scotland; it has more than a million inhabitants. Edinburgh, the capital of North Britain, is the second largest town in Scotland. Its port is Leith, which has a large Baltic trade and is also the chief grain-port of Scotland. There is a regular steamship-service between Leith and Hamburg.

London, which lies principally in a valley, surrounded by gently rising hills, is situated (in latitude $51^{\circ} 31'$ north, and longitude $0^{\circ} 5' 37''$ west of the meridian of Greenwich) — about sixty miles from the sea — on the river Thames, which flows right through the city from west to east and which divides it into two unequal halves. It extends into four counties — Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex; but by far the largest portion is contained in the county of Middlesex. Its part south of the Thames is often spoken of as the Surrey side of the river.

The best way to acquaint oneself with (to find one's bearings in) the general disposition of London streets is to take an imaginary journey by the help of the map — or a real trip on the outside (the top) of a bus — from the following three points — the Bank of England, Charing Cross, and the General Post Office in St. Martin's-le-Grand.

Where does London begin on the riverside? Starting from Richmond and coming down the river one hardly can say when one is in London. Hammersmith may be called its upper end, but its suburbs along the river spread almost as far as the celebrated Botanical Gardens of Kew. There are pleasure steamers running as far up the river as Kew Bridge (and some go even further up as far as Oxford). At Barnes



there is a railway bridge which every spring is packed close with spectators eager to see the finish of the Oxford and Cambridge University boat-race, which starts from Putney some way lower down the river. Between Hammersmith and the tall Tower Bridge there are nearly twenty bridges which cross Father Thames in London, the most remarkable ones being Westminster Bridge, Waterloo Bridge, and London Bridge. This latter bridge is 56 feet wide and 700 feet long. London Bridge is the limit up to which large ships can go up the river, which there begins to broaden almost into an estuary. To let them pass through, the middle part of Tower Bridge is raised by machinery. Tower Bridge, however, is not the lower end of London, which indeed extends down the river almost as far as Greenwich. There are nine sub-river ways (tunnels, subways) under the Thames; the oldest one (the so-called Thames Tunnel between Wapping and Rotherhithe) was opened to the public in 1843, whereas the latest was inaugurated in 1908.

32. Excellent shops in all branches of trade abound in every part of London, chiefly in the retail business-quarters, such as Regent Street, Oxford Street, Piccadilly, the Strand, Fleet Street, Ludgate Hill, Cheapside. As almost everywhere (except perhaps in dressmakers' shops) every article has its fixed price (often marked in plain figures), bargaining is unnecessary. Many of the shops are very extensive; and the immense palatial stores, such as we find at Paris and at Berlin, and in which customers are carried by lifts from floor to floor, have lately become numerous in London.

The wholesale business of London is larger than that of any other place in the world. London is the greatest commercial town in existence. Immense warehouses, filled to overflowing with interminable stores of merchandise of every description, abound in the City and particularly in the London Docks and round the Port of London, which extends from London Bridge to beyond Deptford.

33. Tube Railway Travel in London. My friend and I wish to go from London to Ealing. We are in the City, for I have been to the Deutsche Bank to cash a letter of credit. So we cross from Lombard Street by the Subway and go to the station of the Central London Railway. My friend takes two tickets at the window and has them punched by an official as we pass through the gate to the lift. We keep the tickets to give them up at our destination. We obey the injunction to "stand clear of the gates". Passengers at that hour being few, we do not take to heart the other warning "Beware of pickpockets". On the walls as we go down in the lift we read many advertisements, also one of iced lagerbeer. This makes my mouth water, for on a day like this, when the heat outside is so oppressive, I would greatly like a long drink, some shandygaff (gingerbeer with a dash of bitter), or rather some antialcoholic drink, a lemon squash or some milk and soda. Beer

is no good; in hot weather it produces rather than satisfies thirst; though refreshing and stimulating for a short while, it soon leaves the body and muscles weaker than they were before. We reach the platform. The train comes into the station. Before it stops, the conductor raises the levers to open the gates which give admittance to the platform of the cars. We get in and take our seats in a carriage for non-smokers. We read the names of the stations posted up on either side of the door. There are seven stations between the Mansion House and Shepherd's Bush. Now we are off. The conductor closes the platform gates. He calls out: "Next station Post Office" and shuts the door of the car. We get out at Shepherd's Bush. We go up in the lift, and in the street see the red electric tramcar, which will take us to Ealing Broadway.

The preceding paragraph refers to travelling on the Central London Railway, which runs from the Bank of England (in the East) to Shepherd's Bush (in the West). This Underground electric railway is of comparatively recent date, having been opened for traffic in 1898.

Older than this great artery of inner or "intramural" traffic are the Metropolitan and the District Railways, which form two complete belts (an "inner" and an "outer circle") round the whole of the inner part of London. From this inner and outer circle of intramural traffic various branch-lines diverge (go off) to the outlying suburbs, and several of the great railways run suburban trains in connection with the Metropolitan lines.

Lately the system of the London underground railways has been greatly enlarged, and is still being extended. On the whole six main lines may be distinguished: 1. The Metropolitan Railway, — 2. The District Ry [These two run partly under the houses and streets, by means of tunnels, partly through cuttings between high walls or banks; the following four are tubes, i. e. railways running entirely through subterranean passages:] — 3. The Central London Ry, — 4. The Baker Street and Waterloo Ry, — 5. The Charing Cross, Euston, and Hampstead Ry, — 6. The Great Northern Piccadilly and Brompton Ry.

A very good folder (folding-map) with all the London Underground railways up to date is distributed free of charge (for nothing, gratuitously, gratis) in most of the Underground Railway book stalls.

34. Besides these underground railways there are, to supply the wants of inner and suburban traffic, numerous other conveyances, as horse-buses (omnibuses drawn by horses), tramways, motor-buses (electric motor omnibuses), motorcars¹⁾, taxis (i. e. electric [or petrol] taximeter cabs), steamboats, stage-coaches, flys²⁾, and cabs.

¹⁾ A motorcar = a private automobile carriage; motorcars may also be had (taken) on hire from a motor-garage.

²⁾ A "fly" is a light one-horse vehicle of a superior description, resembling the Parisian "voiture de remise"; flys must be specially ordered from a livery stable keeper; the charges are of course higher than those paid for cabs.

Cabs are either four-wheeled carriages, popularly called "four-wheelers", or two-wheeled cabs, generally called "hansoms".

35. The long-distance provincial traffic which shows London to be the greatest railway centre of Great Britain, is served by numerous railway lines, the principal ones being:

The London and North Western Railway (with Euston Square Station as terminus station),

the Midland Ry (terminus St. Pancras),

the Great Northern (King's Cross),

the Great Western (Paddington),

the Great Eastern (Liverpool Street Station),

the South Eastern (with Charing Cross and Cannon Street Station as terminus stations),

the London, Chatham, and Dover Ry (termini in London: Victoria Station, Herne Hill Station, Ludgate Hill Station, Holborn Viaduct Station),

the South Western (Waterloo Station).

36. England contains the largest cities and towns in the world; and she has more large towns than any other country on the face of the globe. There are in England 25 towns with more than 100 000 inhabitants. The ten largest cities in England are: London, Liverpool, Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Nottingham, Bradford, Bristol, Salford. Salford is a town continuous with Manchester. If, therefore, Manchester-Salford is looked upon as one town, it will rank above Liverpool.

University towns: — a) in England: Oxford, Cambridge, — London, Durham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, Birmingham, Bristol; — b) in Wales; Aberystwyth; — c) in Scotland: Edinburgh, Dundee, Aberdeen, Glasgow; — d) in Ireland: Dublin, Belfast.

37. Hastings, Brighton, Eastbourne, Bournemouth, Torquay, Penzance are well known watering places on the south coast of England; Scarborough, Felixstowe, and Folkestone are fashionable seaside-resorts on the east coast; on the same coast Margate and Ramsgate are very popular watering places. Favourite holiday resorts on the west side are Ilfracombe in Devonshire, Aberystwyth and Llandudno in Wales. One of the most bracing summer resorts is Broadstairs (in Kent), whereas the climate of the Isle of Wight is very relaxing.

38. Portsmouth, Spithead (in the Isle of Wight), Plymouth (on Plymouth Sound), and Sheerness (on the Thames, at the mouth of the Medway) are the most important of the English naval stations. Of late Devonport (which practically is part of Plymouth) and Sheerness have been very strongly fortified.

Outside the United Kingdom England is well provided against the emergency of war, holding no small number of fortified naval stations.

The chief of these are: — a) commanding the Mediterranean: Gibraltar, Malta; — b) the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean: Perim, Aden; — c) the Malacca Strait: Singapore; — d) the China Sea: Hong-kong; — e) the Australian and New Zealand dominions: Norfolk Isle.

39. Great Britain forms part of the British Empire, which comprises the British Isles (Great Britain and Ireland) and the Colonies. The British Empire is often spoken of as Greater Britain. Every territory over which the Union Jack waves, belongs to Greater Britain. It is the largest empire on the face of the globe. The sun never sets and never rises upon it. The British possessions (both in Europe and the other parts of the world) cover an area seventy times as great as that of the United Kingdom; they contain more than seven times as many people. The British colonies cover 27,568,000 square kilometres with some 400,000,000 inhabitants, whereas the colonial possessions of the German Empire amount to 2,600,400 square kilometres with 9,000,000 inhabitants.

Greater Britain is called an empire in a sense of the word never used before. Though the King of Great Britain and Ireland is King of it all, and though the Houses of Parliament — at least to a certain extent — have power over the foreign affairs of all of it, it nevertheless has no one government which directs the affairs of the whole. Most of its several parts have in some degree their own local government, and may be called autonomous, i. e. self-ruling; but the extent of self-rule differs enormously.

English is the official language through it all, though other languages are also official: the Taal (or local form of Dutch) in South Africa, and French in some parts of Canada and the Channel Islands. Letters can go the whole cercle of it for a penny.

“In regard to its government, the British empire differs from all other empires in one most important respect. It is the first in history in which a real effort has been made to train each part to govern itself. It may be said to resemble a family. Some of the children have set up households of their own, though in one or two respects their affairs are still managed by their parents. Some are still at school; some are in the nursery; and some members are almost in the position of servants”.

Self-governing states. The independent households are the self-governing colonies, and are said to possess responsible governments. These are: — The Dominion of Canada — The Commonwealth of Australia — The Dominion of New Zealand — Newfoundland — The Union of South Africa (comprising Cape Colony, Natal, The Orange River Colony, and The Transvaal).

Crown Colonies and Dependencies. Some of these possess representative government. These are much the most numerous: — British India, which has six large divisions and may be roughly said to include also Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, Borneo, and Sarawak —

British Guana, British Honduras, Bermuda — Fiji, British New Guinea, The Pacific Islands — British West Indies — Basutoland, Bechuana-land, Rhodesia — British West Africa — Mauritius, Seychelles, Ascension Island, Falkland Islands, St. Helena, Cyprus, Malta, Gibraltar.

Protectorates. The third great division of the British Empire includes the Protectorates. They are all in Africa: — The Somaliland Protectorate — The East Africa Protectorate — The Uganda Protectorate — The Witu Protectorate — The Zanzibar Protectorate — The British Central Africa Protectorate.

All these several members of the Empire have a double connection with Great Britain. They are all represented in the London Foreign Office, or in the London Colonial and India Offices by Agents, Agent-Generals, or Commissioners; and Great Britain sends out to them a king's representative, whose title is either Governor, Governor-General, High-Commissioner, or Commissioner, Lieutenant-Governor, Consul-General, Commander-in-chief, or Resident. It is Viceroy in the case of India.

An Imperial Conference meets once in every four years. And of late there has been set up in London an Imperial Council, which is to advise the King and all his local governments on Imperial questions. One of the practical issues of the Imperial Conference, held in London in 1907, is the institution of a great Imperial route, assisted by a subsidy of the three chief states concerned — Great Britain, Canada, and Australia. This is the so-called all-Red Route, i. e. a mail, passenger, and cargo route from England to Australia and the East by way of Canada.

Spheres of Influence. Besides the Colonies there are under British guidance countries which theoretically do not belong to the Empire at all, but where nevertheless the Empire is the predominant power. These countries are called 'spheres of influence'. Great Britain has such spheres of influence in Southern Persia (as fixed by the treaty with Russia in 1907), another in Somaliland, another in Siam; others in the Malay Peninsula. But the chief is Egypt and the Soudan. The British power is almost as firmly established there as in India; but the man who governs it is neither Viceroy nor Governor-General: he is known simply as British-Agent and Consul-General. And Egypt itself nominally belongs to Turkey, though long before the beginning of British influence (1875), Egypt had practically been independent of the Ottoman Empire.

40. The British Constitution. The British Empire is governed by a constitutional or limited monarchy. The head of the state is the sovereign, either a king or a queen, in whose name all acts of government are carried out. The legislature consists of two Houses of Parliament, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. In the former (which is also called the Upper House of the British Parliament) sit the lords spiritual (i. e. those archbishops and bishops

who have a seat in the House of Lords) and the lords temporal (i. e. the peers — or heads of the noble families of Great Britain). For it is only the eldest male member of such a family who is really a lord; by way of courtesy, however, the eldest son is often given his father's second title. The five degrees of the British nobility are duke, marquis, earl, viscount, baron.

[Baronets and knights do not belong to the nobility; they are commoners. Baronets and knights have the title of "Sir" prefixed to their Christian names. Baronet is the lowest degree of honour that is hereditary; the rank of knight is not hereditary].

The House of Commons (or the Lower House of the British Parliament) is composed of 640 members, elected by all persons who pay a certain fixed sum as rent. [The continental so-called 'universal suffrage' does not exist in England]. Each electoral district is called a constituency, and the electors the member's constituents.

Any measure introduced into Parliament is called a bill. All bills, except money bills, may originate in either house, the latter only in the Commons. Every bill must be read three times. After the second reading the House goes into Committee and discusses the bill thoroughly. It is then read a third time, and, if approved of, is carried. After a bill has passed both Houses and received the assent of the sovereign, it becomes an Act of Parliament and part of the law of the land. Theoretically the Crown has the right of veto, but never makes use of it in practice.

The Cabinet is the body of ministers who are directly responsible for the government of the country. It is a parliamentary party government (or, as it is also called: a Cabinet government) which prevails in England. That parliamentary party government was first established in 1689, and gradually developed in the 18th century. It is so ordered that the prime minister is selected by the Crown from that party which, for the time being, commands a majority in the House of Commons. To this cause it is due that the Whigs and Tories ¹⁾ have practically alternately conducted the government of the country. When the ministers are defeated on any important measure, they generally advise the dissolution of Parliament, and appeal to the country. If, after the elections, they are still in the minority, they resign and the other party comes into power.

In America the President is the head of the Executive, the legislature consisting of the House of Representatives and the Senate, which together form the Congress.

¹⁾ The terms Whigs and Tories are no longer used in English parliamentary life. It was Sir John Peel (the younger Peel, who was Prime Minister from 1841—46) who, interceding for the principles of free trade and the doctrines of the Manchester school (led by Richard Cobden and John Bright), broke up the Tory party, and brought about a re-arrangement of the political forces under the flags of liberalism and conservatism, so that from that time Whigs have been known as liberals, and Tories as conservatives.

41. How do you do, Mr. J., are you quite well? Quite well, thank you, and you? Thanks, I am pretty well too.

I beg your pardon for troubling you; may I ask you to kindly hand me that book? (There is) no trouble at all; (you are) quite welcome (to it). — Thank you, you are very kind. Pray don't mention it. — I am very sorry to disturb you. Never mind. It's all right.

I beg your pardon, I did not notice your foot. A thousand pardons for stepping on your foot. I hope I did not hurt you. — It's nothing to speak of; there is no harm done.

I beg your pardon, Sir, would you be kind enough to tell me the way to Fleet Street? — Cross this bridge, follow the street straight on and then take the second turning to the left. — Much obliged, Sir; I thank you very much.

42. Do you speak English? Yes, Sir (Yes, Madam; Yes, Miss Smith), I do; I speak it a little. — No, Sir (No, Madam; No, Miss Smith), I do not; I do not speak it. — I beg your pardon, Sir (Madam, Miss Smith), I do not speak English.

Do you speak English? I find some difficulty in expressing myself correctly, but I talk better than I understand; it is for want of practice. I shall be very much obliged to you if you will correct me, when I make mistakes.

I beg your pardon, sir, would you be kind enough to repeat again (would you mind repeating once more) what you said. I did not quite catch your meaning. I do not understand when people speak very fast. Please to speak more slowly.

43. When did you begin learning English? I began learning English last week, a fortnight ago, three weeks ago, a month ago, five weeks ago, two (three, four, five, six) months ago, a year ago, fifteen months ago.

How long have you been learning English? I (We) have been learning English this week, these two weeks (this fortnight), for a month, for six weeks, for six months, for a year. We began learning English at Easter (at Michaelmas, in April, in September 19 . .).

44. When I begin a new paragraph, I do not write quite at the beginning of the line; I leave a small blank space. I do not write in the margin. I write neither too large nor too small. I do not crowd the letters together, I do not write too close. I write my letters clearly and plainly and keep them straight on the line. I take good care to write well and legibly.

How do you spell the word study? I spell it s-t-u-d-y. How do you pronounce s-t-u-d-y? I pronounce it study. How is b-o-o-k (c-h-ee-r-f-u-l, w-o-r-k, u-s-e-l-e-ss) pronounced? It is pronounced book (cheerful, work, useleses).

You must pronounce this sentence better. Pronounce your words more distinctly. Pronounce correctly. Speak up (i. e. speak louder)! Say it again. Once more!

45. A boy must obey his parents and teachers; he must pay attention and behave well. He must sit still (keep quiet); he must put his hands on his desk and sit up straight. He must be punctual. He must write well, carefully, and cleanly. He must speak distinctly and loud; he must think before he speaks. He must go up stairs and down stairs softly and slowly. He must take off his hat before he passes his teacher; he must stop walking and stand aside in a narrow passage or on a staircase to let ladies, his teacher, or older people go by. He must bow (make a bow) on entering the headmaster's room. He must know where the teacher stopped (left off) in his last lesson.

He must not talk to his neighbour during the lesson; he must not prompt (his neighbour), nor must he allow himself to be prompted (nor must he allow his neighbour to prompt him); he must not push his neighbour; he must not copy from his neighbour's exercise. He must not write his exercises badly or carelessly; he must not soil his copy-book; he must not make any blots (ink-spots); he must not leave his books in disorder. He must not let his mind wander from his lesson. He must not sit carelessly; he must not keep his hands in his pockets when speaking to his teacher. He must not run in the corridor.

46. The master (teacher) enters the room, one of the boys gets up and shuts the door behind him; the master walks up to his table, he steps on to the platform, he puts his book on the table, he draws (pulls) the chair back and sits down. He opens the class-book, turning over the leaves till he finds the lesson set for the day. He reads the names of those who are absent or who have been late (and of those whose names have been put down for negligence, idleness, inattention, or misbehaviour). He shuts the book, stands up, walks up to the class, and has the eyes of all the boys fixed upon him.

47. Some current class-room phrases:

a) Is there any one absent? Are there any absent? No, sir [No, Miss Robertson] no one (nobody) is absent. — Are all present? There are two absent, X and Y. X has been absent a whole week. Does any one know (Who knows) how X is getting on? — Why is Y absent? Can any one tell me what is the matter with him (with her)? [There is a knock at the door]. Come (in). [Y enters the class-room]. Please, sir [Miss Robertson], kindly excuse my being late. My train was late. So I could not arrive in time. I did not know you came by train. — My tram was stopped; there was a coal-cart with one of its wheels off lying on the track. So I had to get off the tram and walk, which made me late though most of the way I ran fast (I hurried up) to get here in time.

b) Please, sir, I was absent yesterday. Here is a written excuse from my father. — What was the matter with you? — I was ill, sir; I had a cold, a bad sore throat, a stomach-ache, a head-ache, a tooth-ache, the ear-ache; I had a fever (I was feverish); I had bronchitis, I had a bad cough; my nose kept bleeding; I had cramp; — my sister

got married (it was my sister's wedding day); my grand-mother was buried; my elder brother was confirmed; there was a holiday in the Roman Catholic Church yesterday, so I had to go to mass; — I was suffering from chilblains, from a contagious (infectious) disease.

c) What did we do in our last lesson? Do you remember what we did last time? Where did we stop (leave off)? Do you know where we stopped (left off)? — Who can repeat what we said (what we were talking about) last time? — Begin, J, please. — Very well done; very good. I will give you mark number one. — Now then, go on, G, please. Come on, speak up (speak out, speak loud). What you said was not so good as usual; but still it was fairly good; it was fair: mark number 3. — Every one in his turn. Now it is your turn, R. — Next, T, please. — It is giving me much pleasure (I am glad) to say there is none to-day whose answers were so poor (so bad, so utterly worthless) as to get such bad marks as 4 or 5.

d) What was the home-lesson set for to-day? — Please, sir, we have not got any home-work to-day. There were afternoon-lessons yesterday; we had a free half-holiday yesterday. We had games yesterday. — We have got much home-work to-day. We have got to write out (to copy, to translate, to re-translate, to learn by heart) eight lines on page 21, and we have got to repeat two sections in Grammar (sections 69f and 77). — We have to do a free (a literal) translation (rendering) of Sketch III. — Now then, H., say your lesson, please. — Get out (take) your exercise-books and show me your exercise (translation, copy). — Now each boy pass your books to his righthand neighbour up to the end of the form. The top-boy will gather them up (will collect them) and put them on my desk. No noise please, don't speak (to each other). Keep quiet.

e) I have looked through your corrected copies of the last free composition. Before handing back (distributing) the books to you, I am happy to say (I have great pleasure in saying) there is a general advance towards improvement. The class is making progress (is improving). Most boys (girls) of the class have done better than ever before; their work has become (is becoming) better. — Whereas last time we had two pupils in detention (kept in) for careless correction and disgraceful scrawling (for disgracefully bad writing), there is none this time whom I shall have to keep in (to detain, to send to detention; who will have to go to detention), — there is even none who will have to re-write it (to copy it out again, to do it over again). — The corrections have this time been done more carefully (less carelessly). There is none half-done, unfinished (incomplete). — There are fewer mistakes (errors); there are a few bad blunders; but, on the whole, most mistakes which have been made, are not very serious (are rather slight). — The handwriting of most boys has much improved (has become much better; most boys are making good progress in their handwriting). — Most corrections are neatly written. Some few boys unfortunately still keep to their bad habit of scratching out and writing above (over) the line. — Though

none of the corrections is badly written, there are still some of you who spoil their writing by making their u's like n's and by running their characters (letters) too much together. — Take good care to dot your i's, to cross your t's, and, in writing German, always to put the hook over u, and the two dots over ü. — One of you who used to be fond of adding flourishes and fanciful ornamental strokes to his characters, begins to much improve his handwriting by coming back to a simple and plain style of penmanship (writing).

f) Open your books. Please begin reading, K, where we stopped last time. — Please, sir, I do not know where it is; I was absent last time, I do not know the place. Tell him what page it is; show him the place. — Have you got it? It's your turn; please, go on. But won't you move up a little to the right, there is plenty of room on your right; you are sitting too close together. — Read the next sentence (the remainder of the section, the rest of the chapter, read to the bottom of the page). — You skipped a line; please begin it again two lines above.

Stop here; thank you, that will do (that will be enough). Can any one (Who can) tell in a few words (sum up) what we have been reading? I want it very shortly, and in English. — What, there is no show of hands? What, there is no one to raise his hand? Nobody venturing to volunteer? Won't you have a try, E? — I think, it's rather hard, but I will try my best. — That's a good boy who does not lose courage. — That's (remarkably) well done; it is very good (excellent, capital). I knew you would do it.

g) That's how far we got (that's where we stopped) last time. Shut (close) your books. We are going to see (to have, to take up) something new (fresh, not known [seen] before) now. — There are in the first sentence of the next section some words which are unknown (new) to you. I am going to give you a few easy phrases in English from which you will easily understand (catch) the meaning of these new words. — Now then, what does it mean? Can you explain what it means? — Let us write on the blackboard the new words the meanings of which we have found. You will have to copy them (to write them down) before the end of the lesson. — Now I am going to read the sentence to you. Who can repeat it? Who can tell what is said there? Well, you have not quite understood (caught) its meaning. — All right, you have got it right now. Very well then, let us open the books. Read the sentence to me. Repeat it in your own words. We need not translate it. We had better translate it this time. — Now I am going to read it to you again. Pay close attention to my pronunciation. You will have to read it again after me, the whole class speaking in concert (simultaneously, together).

h) Did you notice any mistakes in K's pronunciation (in K's reading)? — He did not distinguish between the vowel-sounds in *says* and *say*, in *bat bet*, *cattle kettle*, *man men*, *bat bet*, *bad bed*. — He badly

pronounced the word *day*, pronouncing it like the French *le dé* (the thimble), instead of making a diphthong of the final sound (instead of pronouncing it as a diphthong, instead of giving it the sound of a diphthong). — He mixed up the various sounds of the letter *u*, pronouncing the *u*'s exactly alike in *put*, *but*, *tub*, *tube*. — He confused *bow* (inclination of the head, bending of the body) with *bow* (i. e. Robin Hood's famous shooting weapon). — He made voiceless the voiced final consonants (he pronounced sharp the final soft consonants), making no difference between *bad* and *bat*, *bud* and *but*, *dog dock*, *rag rack*, *had hat*, *eyes ice*, *sins since*, *age h*, *ridge rich*, *cab cap*, *cup cup*. — He pronounced *k* in *knee*, not knowing (forgetting) that *k* initiably is never sounded before *n*. — Instead of pronouncing *r* before a vowel with the tip of the tongue, he gave it a guttural pronunciation, thus producing what is called 'a Northumberland (or Tweedside) burr'. — He never distinguished between *l* in *milk* (*l* before a consonant) and *l* in *lady* (*l* before a vowel); his *l*'s are altogether un-English when final, as in *all*, *Bull*, *will*, *well*; he seems not to know that in *wholly* there are two distinctly different *l*'s. — He did not pronounce distinctly enough, nor long enough, *m*, *n*, *v* finally; the final *n* in the English word *can* is much longer than in the German „kann“, and *v* in *five*, *save* is quite different from *f* in *five*, *safe*. — He did not distinguish between *v* and *w*, making a *v* of all his *w*'s, so that with him there was no difference between *vane* and *wane*, *vine* and *wine*. — He badly pronounced *wh* in *what*, *where*, *whine*, dropping the *h*, which careful speakers will never omit. There is, in careful pronunciation, a marked difference between *veal* *weal* *wheel*; *vile* *wile* *while*. — Pronouncing voiced *th* like voiceless *th*, and sometimes like *s*, he mixed up *thy* *sigh* *thigh*; *sin* *thin*; *cloth* *cloths* *clothes* *clothe*. — His pronunciation of *necessary* was incorrect, as he put the main stress (accent) on the second syllable, instead of accentuating the first syllable.

48. What do you write with (With what do you write)? I write with a pen or pencil on paper. I write with chalk on the black-board. What can you do with the chalk?

Go to the black-board, Bob! Take the chalk! Write the name of the day and month! Draw a line! Spell and write the word "black-board"! Underline the first part of it! Cross out the second part of the word! Wipe out the hyphen! Now tell me what is left of the word "black-board". Clean the board! Tell me what you were doing. Alfred, tell Bob what he did; tell us what Bob did.

To clean the black-board, I take the sponge and wipe out the words which I have written. If the sponge is too wet, I use the duster to dry the board with.

With an India rubber I rub out what I have written with a pencil. To take off what has been written with ink, I want an erasing knife (or pen-knife or an ink-eraser). — A pen-wiper is a cloth, or other material, for cleaning (for wiping off) ink from a pen.

Whose duty is it to keep the black-board clean?

The black-board is five feet wide; it is one inch (two inches) thick. How long is it? How many corners has it? What is it made of? Is it painted black? Is it movable? Can you turn it round? Does it go up and down? Can you write on both sides?

49. School-vacations vary in different schools. In general, however, an English schoolboy has four weeks holidays at Christmas, a fortnight at Easter, and seven weeks in midsummer, beside three days at Whitsuntide. There is no vacation at Michaelmas. — How many weeks holidays are we going to have this year? How do the holidays fall this year? When are the holidays this year?

50. What do you want to be (What profession do you want to take up) when you have left school? I mean (I intend) to be a dentist (a doctor of dental surgery); an engineer (a civil engineer, a mechanical engineer, an electrician), a naval architect; a business clerk (a commercial clerk), a bank-clerk [= I mean to enter business, to go into business], a lawyer's clerk, a municipal clerk; I mean to try and get into the civil service (in the Post-Office or as a Railway clerk). I mean to enter the army, the navy. I intend to continue my studies by entering a technical college, by going up to the university. I intend to go into my father's business, — to be a farmer in the German colonies, — to enter an agricultural school, — to be an official of the Woods and Forests, — a draughtsman; — I intend to take up the trade of a butcher, of a carpenter, of a cabinet-maker, of a tailor, of a mason, of a painter, of a baker, of a hair-dresser. I intend to be a student of divinity (theology) and take up the profession of a clergyman; — to study law, to be a lawyer, to go to the bar, to take up the profession of a lawyer; — to study medicine, to be a physician, a surgeon, to take up the profession of a physician (of a veterinary surgeon); — I mean to become a school-master [a high-school teacher = a lady-teacher].

51. I write a letter. I sit down at my desk (at my table), I take a blotter; I take a sheet of note-paper, I take a pen and dip it into the ink-pot. — I write the heading of the letter (i. e. I put the date and place of writing at the head [generally the right hand top-corner] of the letter), I write the salutation, putting a comma after it; I write the body of the letter, I begin a new paragraph (a new line) and write the conclusion. I sign the letter (I affix my signature). I put the name of the recipient in the left hand corner of the letter. I blot the letter (I dry it with the blotting-paper).

I read the letter over again; I fold it up. I put it into the envelope, I take a moistner and pass the gummed part of the envelope over it. I close the letter (I seal it with red sealing-wax). I write the address of the recipient on the envelope. I stamp the letter (I put a stamp on).

I post the letter. I take it to the post-office. I drop it into the letter-box. The post despatches the letter. The postman delivers it

to the recipient. The recipient receives the letter, he opens it; he reads its contents, and answers the letter (sends a reply).

The **five parts of which an ordinary letter consists**, are as follows, 1. the heading (Briefkopf), — 1. the salutation (Anrede), — 3. the body of the letter (Briefinhalt, Text), — 4. the conclusion (Briefschluß), — 5. the name and address of the recipient (Adresse des Empfängers).

a) the **heading** (or address of the writer) shows where and when the letter was written, and should contain the name of the street and town, the number of the house which must precede the name of the street. — The heading should begin about half an inch from the top of the page, and a little to the right of the middle; the different items must be separated by commas and a full stop placed at the close.

b) the **salutation** consists of the opening words of respect or affection. — Near relations are addressed as: "My dear Father", "My dear Mother", "My dear Bessy" (to a sister), etc.

To friends one writes either "My dear N.", or "Dear N.", according to the degree of intimacy, the first being more familiar than the second. The degree of intimacy also determines the use of Christian or surname: to an old family friend of one's own age one says "Dear Harry"; to a friend of later years "Dear Robertson". To a friend with whom one is less intimate, one writes: "Dear Mr. Brown", or "Dear Miss Edwards".

To entire strangers one writes "Sir", or "Madam" (even to an unmarried lady), — to others "Dear Sir", "Dear Madam"; — where more persons are addressed "Sirs", or "Gentlemen".

The salutation is written on the line below the heading, beginning at the left hand margin.

c) the **body of the letter** begins on the line below the salutation; one commences in the centre of the sheet, not writing immediately under the salutation.

d) the **conclusion** is written on the right hand side of the sheet, the first word must begin with a capital, and the closing words should be separated from the signature by a comma. Usual forms of concluding a letter are:

Believe me [to be],

or: I remain,

[Dear Sir],

Yours truly,

N. N.

or: Truly yours, N. N. — Yours faithfully, N. N. — Yours sincerely, N. N.

Particular notice should be paid — 1) to the s in yours, — and 2) to the use of the adverb. — Instead of *yours* (with an s) followed by an adverb *your* (without an s) is used when a substantive is added (which may still further be qualified by an adjective); e.g. instead of "Yours sincerely" (which is the usual form) one may say "Your friend, N.N.", or "Your sincere friend", or "Your sincerely devoted friend"; — instead of "Yours faithfully", one may write "Your faithful friend", or "Your

faithfully attached friend"; — instead of "Yours obediently" one usually says "Your obedient servant".

Some forms of closing familiar letters are as follows, —

Your loving father, N. N. — or: Lovingly yours N. N. — Your affectionate son N. N. — or: Affectionately yours, N. N. — Your grateful and dutiful son (daughter) — Your fond mother — Your friend — Your sincere friend — Most sincerely Yours — Ever sincerely Yours — Yours ever sincerely — Ever Yours — Yours, N. N.

Business letters end with:

Yours truly — Faithfully Yours — Respectfully Yours.

When wishing to greet a third person, one generally employs one of the following usual phrases:

- a) to relations or very intimate friends: "Give my love to",
- b) familiarly: "Give my kind regards to" — "kindly remember me to",
- c) less so: "Please give my respects (my respectful compliments) to".

e) In very familiar letters the fifth part, the **name of the recipient**, is always omitted. In others, it is added after the conclusion, beginning at the left hand side. In strictly business letters, it is put at the beginning of the letter, immediately after the heading.

f) When the letter is folded up and put in the envelope, there still remains **the address on the envelope**. The first line should be written near the middle of the envelope, the margins being made equal on the right and on the left. Begin each of the other lines a little further to the right than the preceding one. The stamp is to be placed in the upper right hand corner.

Gentlemen must be addressed after the form of "Charles Robertson, Esq."; — business men or tradesmen (in business letters) as "Mr. Robertson", or, if addressing a firm of two or more partners ("Messieurs", almost always abbreviated "Messrs":) "Messrs Robertson". — Mr. and Esq. (= Esquire) can never be used together. When Esq. is used, the Christian name of the recipient must never be omitted, and, if unknown, should be replaced by a — (a dash): "— Robertson, Esq." (*read: Dash Robertson Esquire*). Other titles must follow (not precede) the word "Esq." — With the title "Doctor" there are two alternatives, either "Dr. John Brown", or "John Brown, Esq., M. D." [or Ph. D.]. [Most English people are very fond of having some letters after their name].

A married lady is addressed as "Mrs. Robertson" or, if distinction is required, as "Mrs. Alfred Robertson"; an unmarried lady as "Miss Robertson" as long as she is the eldest unmarried daughter, the other unmarried daughters having their Christian name added to the surname: Miss Edith Robertson, Miss Muriel Robertson.

A clergyman is addressed as "[The] Rev[erend] John Wilson", or "Rev. John Wilson, M. A.", if the clergyman has taken his Master's degree at a University.

“Sir” as title (whether of knight or of baronet) always requires the addition of the Christian name: “Sir Walter Scott”, or simply: “Sir Walter.”

In writing to a person staying as a visitor at somebody’s house, the name of the master or lady of the house should be added preceded by “care of” (generally abbreviated: c/o).

g) **Registered letters.** If one wants the transmission and delivery of a letter to be attended to with particular care, one may, on payment of a special fee, have its address registered in the post office. In that case the word “Registered” should be written, and the name of the sender added, on the envelope.

h) In writing an English letter, one should **take particular care** to make a very sparing use of the contracted conversational forms, and **never to divide a word at the end of a line** (so that part of the word follows in the next line).

52. The Postal Traffic in England is very extensive. The service is noted for its efficiency and quickness. The number of letters, post-cards, newspapers, book-packets, patterns, samples, parcels, and the amount of money sent by post-office-orders is enormous.

London is divided into eight Postal Districts, which are designated by the capital letters E. (= the Eastern district), S. E. (South East), E. C. (East Central), W. C. (West Central), and so on. Each has its district post office, from which letters are distributed to the surrounding district and taken by fast-walking postmen to the persons to whom they are addressed. The General Post Office is in St. Martin’s-le-Grand.

On Sundays the post-offices are closed, and there is no delivery of letters in London nor within the suburban district. — Unprepaid letters are charged double postage. Registered letters must be prepaid. — Instead of letter-boxes fastened to the walls of buildings we find in London pillar-boxes set at the edge of the footpath next to the roadway.

If you want to send a telegram, write your message on a telegram-form and affix to it the necessary stamps. If you prepay the reply, the addressee in receiving your telegram is handed a reply-form.

The usual way of sending telegrams (or transoceanic cablegrams) is by electricity passing through isolated copper wires. Recent inventions have made it possible to transmit messages without the use of wire. This system of wireless telegraphy may be applied by day as well as by night.

To speak to some one by telephone (through the telephone) you enter a [telephone] call-box, ring the telephone-bell, and when the ringback is heard, you ask to be put on to Number So and So (saying through the telephone; “[Give me] Number 49, Westend, please!”). Holding up the ear-trumpet you will soon hear the official in attendance at the exchange-(room) telling you to put the money in the slot. — Have you put it in? she asks. — Yes. — Then here is your number — after which (having rung up the person you want to speak to)

you say: "Here Mr. Saunders. Are you there, Mr. Smith?" When you have finished up, you say: "That's all", or "Finished", signalling at the same time to the official the end of the conversation by ringing off.

53. The monetary unit in England is the pound, in America the dollar, in Germany the mark. An American dollar, which equals about marks 4.20, has a hundred cents. The English money is as follows: A pound has twenty shillings; a shilling has twelve pence; a penny has four farthings. There is no coin known by the name of pound: the coin which represents a pound, is called a sovereign.

The sovereign, which is the standard of the English coinage, bears on its face (or obverse) the image of the King's head and as an inscription the Latin words: *Edwardus VII. D : G : Britt : Omn. Rex F : D : Ind : Imp.* (= *Edwardus Septimus Dei gratiâ omnium Britanniarum rex, fidei defensor, Indiæ imperator*, which is in English: E. the Seventh, by the Grace of God King of Britain, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India). On the back (or the reverse) of the coin there is the figure of St. George (the dragon-killer and patron saint of England) on horseback and his dragon with its tail. — From this arrangement of the English standard coin the face (the obverse) of a coin is sometimes called its head, and the back (the reverse) its tail. Hence the expression "head or tail" (or also: "head or tails") often meaning nothing but "this side or that side", or "this thing or that one". This phrase is particularly employed when a coin is thrown up for the purpose of deciding some point (a choice, question, or stake) by its fall.

There are two sorts of money: paper-money and coined money.

Paper-money or bank-notes are notes or bills, issued by government (or by some banking company) promising payment of money (in gold or silver) to the bearer at demand. The lowest English government bank-note is the five-pound note (the £ 5 note).

There are three kinds of coined money: gold, silver, and bronze coins.

2 Gold coins: the **sovereign** (the coin of highest value), and the **half-sovereign** (§ 117, f. note).

[The guinea, a gold coin formerly current (circulating, in circulation) in Great Britain at the value of 21 shillings sterling (£ 1.1 s.) was not coined since the issue of sovereigns in 1817].

6 Silver-coins: the **crown** (= 5 s.), the **half-crown** (half a crown = 2 s. 6 d.), the **florin** (= 2 s.), the **shilling** (= 12 d.); the **sixpence** (= 6 d. or half a shilling), the **three-pence** (= the fourth part of a shilling).

3 Bronze-coins (often shortly called "coppers" because they were formerly made of copper): the **penny** (1 d. = the twelfth part of a shilling), the **half-penny**, the **farthing** (the coin of least value; four farthings make a penny).

54. I set out on a journey from Berlin to London. I leave Berlin in the morning. The day before I went to a banker's, and bought some English money. (I changed German money for English).

I pack my luggage. I call a cab. I have my luggage placed on the cab. I tell the driver to drive to the Silesian Station of the Metropolitan Railway. I pay my fare, and ask a porter to see that my luggage is properly registered. I take a second class return-ticket to London which is available (is valid, holds good) for forty-five days. As I have less than fifty lbs., I have no over-weight (no excess-weight) to pay for. I have my bulkier luggage (my trunk and hat-box) registered straight through to St. Paul's. I have my ticket examined and clipt on entering the platform. The porter helps me to find the through-carriage to Flushing and to place my handbag and my portmanteau on the rack of the compartment. I carry my umbrella, stick, mackintosh, and the packet of refreshments myself. I give the porter his fee and a tip besides. I take a corner-seat which has not been engaged beforehand, with my back to the engine. As I have my packet of refreshments, I only go once into the dining-car to have a table d'hôte dinner at two o'clock. At the Dutch frontier the customs-officers enter the carriage to examine the packages in the compartments. They are not particular as to those travellers who have a through-ticket to London whereas the travellers who remain in Holland have all their luggage examined at the Dutch frontier-station. I regulate my watch putting it back by one hour (in Germany we have Central European time; in Holland and in England they go by (reckon by) West European, i. e. Greenwich time).

On arriving at Flushing platform I call a porter to help me to take my packages to the boat. As I do not want to travel fore-cabin, I take a supplementary return-ticket for the saloon, and afterwards place my handbag in my cabin. Before going to bed, I take a walk on deck, I have a good wash in the lavatory, and I take some refreshment at the bar. As the weather is fairly good, and as there is very little pitching and rolling, I undress and turn into my berth, and soon fall fast asleep. Next morning I rise soon after four o'clock, have a good wash again, put on fresh linen to present a good appearance in London, take a cup of coffee, and get ready for landing at Queenborough. At the Custom House all my luggage is brought up to be examined. As I have no cigars, no liquors, nor any other dutiable article to declare, I have no duty to pay, and I am glad to be allowed to lock up my luggage again. My registered luggage is placed in the luggage-van by the railway servants, and I take my packages with me into the carriage. Before the train starts, I find time to send a telegram home to inform my parents of my safe arrival¹⁾. The charge for a telegram to Germany is twopence for each word. At St. Paul's station I find my friend waiting for me on the platform; he calls a cab, and I get a porter to put my luggage on it.

¹⁾ Lately telegraph offices have been established on board the steamers, from where telegrams are forwarded by means of wireless telegraphy to telegraph stations on land.

ENGLISH POETRY.

English literature is one of the richest that the world has ever seen. It has exerted a great influence on the progress of mankind and the improvement of human happiness. Its bearings on German thought are particularly important. It reaches further back than that of any other modern European language; and with the extension of English influence and settlement over the face of the whole globe, we find English writers of note not only in America but also in Australia, India, and Africa. The large part, too, which women have taken in this noble work within the last century, is perhaps more conspicuous in England than anywhere else. The chief names in English poetry (leaving aside the earliest period) are Chaucer, Spenser, Marlowe, Shakespeare, Milton, Pope, Burns, Wordsworth, Scott, Byron, and of recent days Tennyson, Browning, and Matthew Arnold.

As in German philology one speaks of Old High German, Middle High German, and Modern High German, so there are in the English language three periods: Old English, Middle English, and Modern English. The Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) period lasts till about forty years after the Norman Conquest (from about 700 to 1100); Modern English begins some fifty years before Elizabeth (1558—1603), i. e. at about 1500 A. D. Each of the three periods is rich in literature, both prose and poetry.

The chief poetical production of the Old English period is an epic, called **Beowulf**. It is the sea that forms the background of this poem, and love of the sea is essentially an attribute of the English people; it runs through all English poetry, and is still a living force in the English national life of to-day, and in Modern English verse.

The greatest of all Middle English poets is Geoffrey **Chaucer**, who died in 1400, and is said to have been born about 1340. His chief work, and indeed the one on which his fame rests, are the **Canterbury Tales**. The poem consists of a number of tales told by different persons, prefaced by a prologue, in which the tellers of the tales are described. These tellers, representing all sorts and conditions of men and women, are supposed to be pilgrims, under the charge of Henry Bailey, the host of the Tabard Inn at Southwark (London), bound for Canterbury, where they were going to visit the shrine of Thomas Becket, the famous archbishop of Canterbury, who, in upholding the pope's interests against the king's attempts to assert the rights of the realm, had (in 1176) met with a cruel death.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588), in the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1558—1603) marks the birth of Greater Britain; henceforth the English nation looked towards the Ocean and the New World. The happy political and social circumstances in the reign of 'Good Queen Bess', who 'found England divided and weak, and left it united

and strong', while they produced what is called 'Merry England', brought about the golden age of English literature. Among the many poets that flourished in the Elizabethan era, the names of Spenser Marlowe, Shakespeare, and Ben Jonson stand prominent.

Edmund Spenser, 1552–1599, is the author of the *Fairy Queen*, an allegorical poem of great beauty and full of imaginative description, the main theme of which is the prosperity of England under her glorious queen.

Christopher Marlowe¹⁾, 1564–1593, the greatest dramatist before Shakespeare, left behind him seven plays, the best known of which is *The Tragical History of Dr. Faustus*, founded on an English translation of the German chap-book of Dr. Faustus (1587).

Faustus in his Study.

Settle thy studies, Faustus, and begin
To sound the depth of that thou wilt profess:
Having commenc'd, be a divine in show,
Yet level at the end of every art,
And live and die in Aristotle's works.
Sweet Analytics, 'tis thou hast ravish'd me! (*Reads:*)
'*Bene disserere est finis logices.*'
Is, to dispute well, logic's chiefest end?
Affords this art no greater miracle?
Then read no more, thou hast attain'd that end;
A greater subject fitteth Faustus' wit:
Bid ὄν καὶ μὴ ὄν²⁾ farewell; Galen come,
Seeing *Ubi desinit Philosophus, ibi incipit Medicus*;
Be a physician, Faustus, heap up gold,
And be eterniz'd for some wondrous cure. (*Reads:*)
'*Summum bonum medicinae sanitas,*
The end of physic is our body's health.
Why, Faustus, hast thou not attain'd that end?
Is not thy common talk found aphorisms?
Are not thy bills hung up as monuments,
Whereby whole cities have escap'd the plague,
And thousand desp'rate maladies been eas'd?

¹⁾ Marlowe was the first who really established the five-foot iambic measure unrimed (i. e. the so-called 'blank verse') as the medium in the drama. The blank verse, which 40 years before had been introduced from Italy, received at Marlowe's hands so much weight and depth, so much force and fulness that Shakespeare found it a worthy form to cast his masterpieces in. The first to use blank verse for a long, sustained non-dramatic poem was John Milton. Giving to 'Marlowe's mighty line' more variety than even Shakespeare did, Milton so well understood the wielding of that instrument that Alfred Tennyson, the great poetic artist of the 19th century (who himself shows in his style a union of pictorial power with an exquisite musical expression that is to be found in no other English poet), wrote of Milton as the 'mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies', the 'organ-voice of England'. — The English blank verse was afterwards adapted to German requirements. Having been advocated by Jakob Bodmer (of Zürich 1698–1783), and having been experimented with by Schlegel, Wieland, Klopstock, Goethe (Belsazar 1765) and others, the rimeless iambics became the standard verse of the German classic drama, through Lessing's *Nathan the Wise* (1779).

²⁾ i. e. the science of Existence and Non-Existence.

Yet art thou still but Faustus, and a man.
 Couldst thou make men to live eternally,
 Or, being dead, raise them to life again,
 Then this profession were to be esteem'd.
 Physic, farewell! — Where is Justinian? (*Reads:*)

*'Si una eademque res legatur duobus,
 Alter rem, alter valorem rei, etc.'*

A pretty case of paltry legacies! (*Reads:*)
'Exhereditare filium non potest pater, nisi' —

Such is the subject of the institute
 And universal body of the law.

This study fits a mercenary drudge,
 Who aims at nothing but external trash;
 Too servile and illiberal for me.

When all is done, Divinity is best.

Jerome's Bible, Faustus, view it well. (*Reads:*)

'Stipendium peccati mors est'. Ha! *'Stipendium. etc.'*

The reward of sin is death; that's hard. (*Reads:*)

'Si peccasse negamus, fullimur, et nulla est in nobis veritas.'

If we say that we have no sin,

We deceive ourselves, and there's no truth in us.

Why then, belike we must sin, and so consequently die:

Ay, we must die an everlasting death.

What doctrine call you this, *Che sarà, sarà*.

What will be, shall be? Divinity, adieu!

These metaphysics of magicians

And necromantic books are heavenly:

Lines, circles, scenes, letters, and characters,

Ay, these are those that Faustus most desires.

O what a world of profit and delight,

Of power, of honour, of omnipotence

Is promis'd to the studious artisan!

All things that move between the quiet poles

Shall be at my command: emperors and kings

Are but obeyed in their several provinces;

Nor can they raise the wind, or rend the clouds.

But his dominion that exceeds in this,

Stretcheth as far as doth the mind of man;

A sound magician is a mighty god:

Here, Faustus, tire thy brain to gain a deity!

[Scene I.]

William Shakespeare¹⁾ is perhaps the greatest of all dramatic poets. There is very little known about his life. He was born at Stratford-

¹⁾ The spelling in which the poet signed his name, seems, in some documents, to be Shakespeare. But as this spelling implies a pronunciation different from that under which the poet *lives*, the spelling Shakespeare is preferable, so much the more so as the latter is also the spelling of the poet's name on the title-page of the first collected edition of his plays, the so-called 'Folio of 1623'.

on-Avon (Warwickshire) in April 1564. When about seven years old, he was sent to Stratford Grammar School, where free instruction was imparted to the boys of the town. There is good evidence to show that he was a fair Latin scholar, and could read Ovid and Virgil with ease and pleasure to himself. At the age of 21 or 22, he went up to London, where he found some connection with the stage, combining, like other dramatists of the time, and like Molière afterwards, the work of actor and playwright. In London Shakespeare soon mingled on equal and amicable terms in the intellectual society of the day. And it is probable that, as tradition reports, he was, with other poets and wits of the time, a frequent visitor to the Mermaid Tavern in Friday Street, taking part in its jovial wit-combats, which found the learned Ben Jonson, well versed in Latin and Greek, like a Spanish galleon, solid and slow, but Shakespeare, like an English man-of-war, light and quick of movement, and infinite in resource and ready wit. Having for some years been engaged in retouching and re-writing parts of old plays, which had for some time been in the repertoire of the players, or in revising and recasting new plays, which needed alteration, and having thus gained an early experience as a dramatist, he soon tried his hand at original dramatic compositions. In these he succeeded so well that, as early as 1592, he was publicly spoken of as a successful author. Shakespeare prospered both as a playwright and actor and amassed a considerable fortune, with which he purchased houses and lands in Stratford. Here he spent his last years in easy circumstances and died in April 1616.

It is a curious fact that not a single line of Shakespeare's MSS remains; all we possess of his handwriting is his signature to his will and some other legal deeds. In 1741, a monument was erected to his honour in the Poets' Corner at Westminster Abbey. The 36 plays of Shakespeare, which were collected seven years after his death by two of his friends and fellow-actors, are classified as comedies, histories (i. e. dramatizations of episodes in English history), and tragedies. Besides his dramas Shakespeare gave to the world 154 sonnets.

Richard II (1595), which introduces a whole series of other historical plays, treats of the destiny of Richard II, the last of the Plantagenet kings, and the rise of Henry Bolingbroke, who [in 1399] seats himself upon the throne to become the progenitor of the noble family of kings under whose rule England, according to Shakespeare's *Henry VIII*, was in his time flourishing and at peace. Richard II is still marked by a strong influence of Marlowe, and, like *Romeo and Juliet* and *John* and several others of the early plays, it shows an enormous power of rhetoric.

England.

This royal throne of kings, this sceptred isle,
 This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
 This other Eden, demi-paradise,
 This fortress, built by Nature for herself,
 Against infection and the hand of war;
 This happy breed of men, this little world,
 This precious stone set in the silver sea,
 Which serves it in the office of a wall,
 Or as a moat defensive to a house,
 Against the envy of less happier lands,
 This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England!

King Richard II. II. 1. 40.

The Merchant of Venice (a comedy, 1596) has, especially on the English stage, often been interpreted as a plea for toleration, in which the poet has placed in the mouth of Shylock a most effective denunciation of Christian intolerance. Shakespeare (say these interpreters) sets before us loyal friendship and true love, the wickedness and futility of revenge, the beauty of justice tempered by mercy, filial affection in Portia's unhesitating obedience to the father whom she loved and respected, and, in Jessica's unfilial behaviour, the result of a miserly father's harsh treatment.

Portia's Plea for Mercy.

Portia. The quality of mercy is not strained,
 It droppeth, as the gentle rain from heaven,
 Upon the place beneath: it is twice blest;
 It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes.
 'Tis mightiest in the mightiest: it becomes
 The throned monarch better than his crown;
 His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,
 The attribute to awe and majesty,
 Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;
 But mercy is above this sceptred sway;
 It is enthroned in the hearts of kings,
 It is an attribute to God himself;
 And earthly power doth then show likest God's
 When mercy seasons justice.

(Merchant of Venice, Act IV: Scene 1, line 6, foll.)

Julius Cæsar, Antony and Cleopatra, and Coriolanus are plays of Roman history. They are all tragedies, and the historical setting is perhaps of less account than the characters of the chief personages. In Julius Cæsar (1601) Brutus and Cassius are the chief characters, and Antony is the chief orator.

Mark Antony's Oration in the Forum.

Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears;
I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.
The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones;
So let it be with Cæsar. The noble Brutus
Hath told you Cæsar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Cæsar answered it.
Here, under leave of Brutus and the rest —
For Brutus is an honourable man;
So are they all, all honourable men —
Come I to speak in Cæsar's funeral.
He was my friend, faithful and just to me:
But Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honourable man.
He hath brought many captives home to Rome,
Whose ransoms did the general coffers fill:
Did this in Cæsar seem ambitious?
When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept:
Ambition should be made of sterner stuff:
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honourable man.
You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse: was this ambition?
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious;
And, sure, he is an honourable man.
I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke,
But here I am to speak what I do know.
You all did love him once, not without cause:
What cause withholds you then to mourn for him?
O judgment! thou art fled to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason. Bear with me
My heart is in the coffin there with Cæsar,
And I must pause till it come back to me . . .
But yesterday the word of Cæsar might
Have stood against the world; now lies he there,
And none so poor to do him reverence.
O masters! if I were disposed to stir
Your hearts and minds to mutiny and rage,
I should do Brutus wrong, and Cassius wrong,
Who, you all know, are honourable men:
I will not do them wrong; I rather choose

To wrong the dead, to wrong myself, and you,
 Than I will wrong such honourable men.
 But here's a parchment, with the seal of Cæsar;
 I found it in his closet, 'tis his will:
 Let but the commons hear this testament —
 Which, pardon me, I do not mean to read —
 And they would go and kiss dead Cæsar's wounds,
 And dip their napkins in his sacred blood,
 Yea, beg a hair of him for memory,
 And, dying, mention it within their wills,
 Bequeathing it, as a rich legacy,
 Unto their issue . . .

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
 You all do know this mantle: I remember
 The first time ever Cæsar put it on;
 'Twas on a summer's evening, in his tent,
 That day he overcame the Nervii.
 Look! in this place ran Cassius' dagger through;
 See what a rent the envious Casca made.
 Through this the well-beloved Brutus stabbed;
 And as he plucked his cursed steel away,
 Mark how the blood of Cæsar followed it,
 As rushing out of doors, to be resolved
 If Brutus so unkindly knocked, or no;
 For Brutus, as you know, was Cæsar's angel:
 Judge, O you gods, how dearly Cæsar loved him:
 This was the most unkindest cut of all;
 For when the noble Cæsar saw him stab,
 Ingratitude, more strong than traitors' arms,
 Quite vanquished him: then burst his mighty heart;
 And, in his mantle muffling up his face,
 Even at the base of Pompey's statua,
 Which all the while ran blood, great Cæsar fell.
 O, what a fall was there, my countrymen!
 Then I, and you, and all of us fell down,
 Whilst bloody treason flourished over us.
 O! now you weep; and, I perceive, you feel
 The dint of pity: these are gracious drops.
 Kind souls, what, weep you when you but behold
 Our Cæsar's vesture wounded? Look you here,
 Here is himself, marred, as you see, with traitors . . .
 Good friends, sweet friends, let me not stir you up
 To such a sudden flood of mutiny.
 They that have done this deed are honourable:
 What private griefs they have, alas! I know not,

That made them do it: they are wise and honourable,
 And will, no doubt, with reasons answer you.
 I come not, friends, to steal away your hearts:
 I am no orator, as Brutus is;
 But, as you know me all, a plain blunt man,
 That love my friend; and that they know full well
 That gave me public leave to speak of him:
 For I have neither wit, nor words, nor worth,
 Action, nor utterance, nor the power of speech,
 To stir men's blood: I only speak right on;
 I tell you that which you yourselves do know;
 Show you sweet Cæsar's wounds, poor, poor dumb mouths,
 And bid them speak for me: but were I Brutus,
 And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony
 Would ruffle up your spirits, and put a tongue
 In every wound of Cæsar, that should move
 The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny. [Julius Cæsar III, 2.]

Hamlet (1602) is the most popular and the most interesting of all the tragedies of the great dramatist.

Advice of Polonius to his Son, on setting forth on his Travels.

There, my blessing with thee!
 And these few precepts in thy memory
 See thou charáctér¹). Give thy thoughts no tongue,
 Nor any unproportioned thought his²) act.
 Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
 The friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
 Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel;
 But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
 Of each new-hatched, unfledged comrade. Beware
 Of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
 Bear't that th' opposèd may beware of thee.
 Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice;
 Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
 Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy,
 But not expressed in fancy; rich, not gaudy;
 For the apparel oft proclaims the man,
 And they in France, of the best rank and station,
 Are most select and generous, chief in that.
 Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
 For loan oft loses both itself and friend,

¹) Construe: and see [that] thou character these few p. i. t. m. — ²) his = its. *Its* (the possessive form of the personal pronoun *it*) is modern, being rarely found in the writings of Shakespeare and Milton, and not at all in the King James's version of the Bible [1611]. Shakespeare, in strict accordance with the correct usage of the older language, generally still employs the form *his* when referring to neuter (as well as to masculine) nouns.

And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
This above all: to thine own self be true,
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man.

Farewell: my blessing season this in thee! [Hamlet, [1602] I, 3, 57.

Familiar Quotations. The number of passages and sentences from Shakespeare that have become household sayings and every-day quotations, is very great.

Wise men ne'er sit and wail their loss,
But cheerly seek how to redress their harms. 3 Henry the Sixth [1592]. V. 4, 2.
Wisely and slow; they stumble that run fast. Romeo and Juliet [1597]. II. 3, 94.
There is a tide in the affairs of men,
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows, and in miseries. Julius Cæsar [1601]. IV. 3, 221.

Good name in man and woman, dear my lord,
Is the immediate jewel of their souls:
Who steals my purse steals trash; 'tis something, nothing;
'Twas mine, 'tis his, and has been slave to thousands;
But he that filches from me my good name
Robs me of that which not enriches him,
And makes me poor indeed. Othello [1604], Act III, Scene 3.

How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
To have a thankless child! King Lear [1605]. I. 4, 310.

Familiar phrases from Hamlet: The time is out of joint (I, 5). — To be, or not to be, that is the question (III, 1). — Brevity is the soul of wit (II, 2). — **From Othello:** Put money in thy purse (I, 3). — **From the titles of plays:** Love's labour's lost. — Much ado about nothing.

John Milton (1608—1674), the great epic poet of England, the poet of Puritanism, who, through his *Paradise Lost*, inspired Klopstock to write his *Messias*. The subject of *Paradise Lost* is the fall of man: Adam and Eve, having been tempted by Satan and having eaten of the Tree of the Knowledge of Good and Evil, are expelled from Eden. *Paradise Lost* is one of the few great and immortal books of the world. Its language, steeped in classical allusions and scriptural phrases, combines beauty and nobility. The following sentence, which opens the first of the twelve cantos of *Paradise Lost*, gives some idea of the peculiarities of Milton's style.

Of Man's first disobedience and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, heavenly Muse, that on the secret top

Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
 That shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed,
 In the beginning how the Heavens and Earth
 Rose out of Chaos; or if Sion hill
 Delight thee more, and Silao's brook that flowed
 Fast by the oracle of God; I thence
 Invoke thy aid to my advent'rous song,
 That with no middle flight intends to soar
 Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues
 Things unattempted yet in prose or rime.

(Paradise Lost [1667] I. 1—16.)

Alexander Pope (1688—1744) is the great didactic poet of England. His writings are distinguished by their masterly form and artificial style. The high pecuniary reward which he received for the translation of Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, enabled him to buy a country-seat at Twickenham on the banks of the Thames and to live there in comfortable circumstances. To German readers Pope is known by the essay entitled *Pope ein Metaphysiker!* (1755), which Moses Mendelssohn (1729—1786) wrote in conjunction with Lessing (1729—1781).

Achilles' wrath, to Greece the direful spring
 Of woes unnumber'd, heavenly goddess, sing!
 That wrath which hurl'd to Pluto's gloomy reign
 The souls of mighty chiefs untimely slain;
 Whose limbs, unburied on the naked shore,
 Devouring dogs and hungry vultures tore:
 Since great Achilles and Atreides strove,
 Such was the sovereign doom, and such the will of Jove!¹⁾

(*Iliad* [1715], Book I, lines 1—8.)

Quotation: Good-nature and good sense must ever join; To err is human, to forgive divine. [Essay on Criticism, II, 325].

James Thomson (1700—1748) is the author of the famous national song given below. His chief work is a poem entitled "The Seasons" (1730), which gives beautiful descriptions of rural life and scenery in the four seasons of the year (Spring, Summer, Autumn, Winter). By the sentiment for nature, expressed in this poem, Thomson inaugurated a new era in English poetry, the era of English nature-poetry, and, through his descriptions of natural scenery, he exercised some influence on German poets such as the Hamburg author B. H. Brockes (1680—1747) and the Swiss (Zürich) writer Albrecht von Haller (1708—1777), author of the famous poem "The Alps".

¹⁾ In a recent translation in prose — done by Andrew Lang, Walter Leaf, and Ernest Myers — and published by Messrs. Macmillan and Co., London, 1883 — the above passage runs as follows: — Sing, goddess, the wrath of Achilles, Peleus' son, the ruinous wrath that brought on the Achaeans woes innumerable, and hurled down into Hades many strong souls of heroes, and gave their bodies to be a prey to dogs and all winged fowls; and so the counsel of Zeus wrought out its accomplishment from the day when first strife parted Atreides, king of men, and noble Achilles.

Rule, Britannia.

When Britain first, at Heaven's command,
 Arose from out the azure main,
 This was the charter of her land,
 And guardian angels sung the strain:
 "Rule, Britannia, rule the waves!
 Britons never will be slaves!"

The nations, not so blest as thee,
 Must, in their turns, to tyrants fall;
 While thou shalt flourish great and free,
 The dread and envy of them all.
 Still more majestic shalt thou rise,
 More dreadful from each foreign stroke;
 As the loud blast that tears the skies,
 Serves but to root thy native oak.

Thee haughty tyrants ne'er shall tame;
 All their attempts to bend thee down
 Will but arouse thy generous flame,
 But work their woe and thy renown.
 To thee belongs the rural reign;
 Thy cities shall with commerce shine;
 All thine shall be the subject main,
 And every shore it circles thine!

The Muses, still with Freedom found,
 Shall to thy happy coast repair;
 Blest Isle! with matchless beauty crown'd,
 And manly hearts to guard the fair: —
 "Rule, Britannia, rule the waves!
 Britons never will be slaves!"

William Cowper (1731—1800), first of English poets, dared a consistent simplicity of subject and of treatment. He is the first poet of English domestic and rural life.

England.

England, with all thy faults, I love thee still —
 My country! and, while yet a nook is left
 Where English minds and manners may be found,
 Shall be constrain'd to love thee. Though thy clime
 Be fickle, and thy year most part deform'd
 With dripping rains, or whither'd by a frost,
 I would not yet exchange thy sullen skies,
 And fields without a flower, for warmer France
 With all her vines; nor for Ausonia's groves
 Of golden fruitage, and her myrtle bowers.

Robert Burns (1759—1796), 'the Ploughman of Ayrshire', is the great national poet of Scotland. He is known by his lovesongs, by his tender sympathies for the miseries of man and beast, and his ardent enthusiasm for the glorious history and the natural beauty of his native country.

My Heart's in the Highlands. (1789.)

My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here;
 My heart's in the Highlands, a-chasing the deer;
 A-chasing the wild deer, and following the roe;
 My heart's in the Highlands wherever I go.
 Farewell to the Highlands, farewell to the North,
 The birth-place of valour, the country of worth;
 Wherever I wander, wherever I rove,
 The hills of the Highlands for ever I love.
 Farewell to the mountains high-covered with snow;
 Farewell to the straths and green valleys below;
 Farewell to the forests and wild-hanging woods;
 Farewell to the torrents and loud-pouring floods.
 My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here; etc.

William Wordsworth (1770—1850), is the great reformer of poetical diction, which — chiefly through his theories put forth in the Preface of his *Lyrical Ballads* (1798) — he freed from the trammels of classical conventionalism and over-elaborate artificiality.

Wordsworth is one of the 'Lake Poets', or 'Lakists', the others being Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772—1834) and Robert Southey (1774—1843). These poets were so called because they lived in the Lake District (in Westmoreland and in Cumberland).

England's Destiny (1802).

It is not to be thought of that the flood
 Of British freedom, which, to the open sea
 Of the world's praise, from dark antiquity
 Hath flowed, 'with pomp of waters, unwithstood',
 Roused though it be full often to a mood
 Which spurns the check of salutary bands,
 That this most famous stream in bogs and sands
 Should perish; and to evil and to good
 Be lost for ever. In our halls is hung
 Armoury of the invincible knights of old:
 We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
 That Shakespeare spake: the faith and morals hold
 Which Milton held. In everything we are sprung
 Of earth's first blood, have titles manifold.

[Sonnets dedicated to Liberty.]

Composed upon Westminster Bridge (Sep. 3, 1803).

Earth has not anything to show more fair:
 Dull would he be of soul who could pass by
 A sight so touching in its majesty:
 This City now doth, like a garment, wear
 The beauty of the morning; silent, bare
 Ships, towers, domes, theatres, and temples lie
 Open unto the fields, and to the sky;
 All bright and glittering in the smokeless air.
 Never did sun more beautifully steep
 In his first splendour, valley, rock, or hill;
 Ne'er saw I, never felt, a calm so deep!
 The river glideth at his own sweet will:
 Dear God! the very houses seem asleep;
 And all that mighty heart is lying still!

[Miscellaneous Sonnets].

Feelings of the Tyrolese (Hofer, 1809).

The land we from our fathers had in trust,
 And to our children will transmit, or die:
 This is our maxim, this our piety;
 And God and nature say that it is just.
 That which we *would* perform in arms — we must!
 We read the dictate in the infant's eye;
 In the wife's smile; and in the placid sky;
 And at our feet, amid the silent dust
 Of them that were before us. — Sing aloud
 Old songs, the precious music of the heart!
 Give, herds and flocks, your voices to the wind!
 While we go forth, a self-devoted crowd,
 With weapons in the fearless hand, to assert
 Our virtue and to vindicate mankind.

[Sonnets dedicated to Liberty.]

An active principle pervades the universe:

its noblest seat the human soul.
 To every form of being is assigned
 An active principle: howe'er removed
 From sense and observation, it subsists
 In all things, in all natures, in the stars
 Of azure heaven, the unenduring clouds,
 In flower and tree, in every pebble stone
 That paves the brooks, the stationary rocks,
 The moving waters, and the invisible air.
 Whate'er exists hath properties that spread
 Beyond itself, communicating good,

A simple blessing, or with evil mixed;
 Spirit that knows no insulated spot,
 No chasm, no solitude; from link to link
 It circulates, the soul of all the worlds.
 This is the freedom of the universe;
 Unfolded still the more, more visible,
 The more we know; and yet is revered least,
 And least respected, in the human mind,
 Its most apparent home. The food of hope
 Is meditated action, robbed of this
 Her sole support, she languishes and dies.
 We perish also; for we live by hope
 And by desire; we see by the glad light,
 And breathe the sweet air of futurity,
 And so we live, or else we have no life.

(The Excursion [1814], IX, 1.)

Sir Walter Scott (1771—1832) began his career as a poet with translations from the German. Then followed such works as *Marmion*, the *Lady of the Lake*, etc., in which he sang the praise of Scotland, his native land. But when Byron appeared, he gave up poetry, took to prose and wrote his famous *Waverley Novels*; the earnings of the last of which were spent in paying off a debt of £ 117,000, incurred through the failure of the publishing firm of his friends, the Ballantynes.

The Love of Country.

Breathes there the man, with soul so dead,
 Who never to himself hath said,
 "This is my own, my native land!"
 Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
 As home his footsteps he hath turned,
 From wandering on a foreign strand!
 If such there breathe, go, mark him well;
 For him no minstrel raptures swell:
 High though his titles, proud his name,
 Boundless his wealth as wish can claim;
 Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
 The wretch, concentred all in self,
 Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
 And, doubly dying, shall go down
 To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
 Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung.

(The Lay of the Last Minstrel [1805]. VI, I.)

Thomas Moore (1779—1852), the Irish song-writer, was essentially a lyric poet. He is also known by an epic poem, '*Lalla Rookh*' (an oriental romance with four tales, one of which, *Paradise and the Peri*, has been set to music by Schumann), and by his '*Life of Lord Byron*'.

Those Evening Bells.

Those evening bells! those evening bells!
How many a tale their music tells,
Of youth, and home, and that sweet time,
When last I heard their soothing chime.

Those joyous hours are past away;
And many a heart, that then was gay,
Within the tomb now darkly dwells,
And hears no more those evening bells.

And so 'twill be when I am gone;
That tuneful peal will still ring on,
While other bards shall walk these dells,
And sing your praise, sweet evening bells!

Lord Byron (1788—1824), unhappy at home, spent most of his time abroad, and has given us an account of his own wanderings in his *Childe Harold*. 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage' is the best known of Byron's works; the scenes sketched in its four cantos are laid in Portugal, Spain, Greece, Albania, Turkey, Belgium, the Valley of the Rhine, Switzerland, and Italy.

Fired by enthusiasm for the efforts of Greece to throw off the Turkish yoke, he took part in the war himself. There he met his death, through a fever which he had caught, at the defence of Missolonghi.

Byron was a contemporary of Goethe, whose famous song by Mignon (in his novel 'The Apprenticeship of Wilhelm Meister', 1796) he has imitated in the following lines (*The Bride of Abydos* [1813], I, 1, in which is applied to Greece what in Goethe's novel is said with reference to Italy):

Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime,
Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle,
Now melt into sorrow, now madden to crime?

In the beautiful lines that follow, from *Childe Harold* (*Canto III* [1816], stanza XXI et seq.), the poet has taken a certain poetical license with the facts of history.

The Eve before the Battle of Waterloo (1815).

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage-bell;
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell.

Did ye not hear it? — No; 'twas but the wind,
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street;
On with the dance! let joy be unconfined;
No sleep till morn, when Youth and Pleasure meet
To chase the glowing Hours with flying feet —
But hark! — that heavy sound breaks in once more,
As if the clouds its echo would repeat;
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!
Arm! arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar!
Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain: he did hear
That sound the first amidst the festival,
And caught its tone with Death's prophetic ear;
And when they smiled because he deemed it near,
His heart more truly knew that peal too well
Which stretched his father on a bloody bier,
And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell:
He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell.
Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness:
And there were sudden partings, such as press
The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs
Which ne'er might be repeated; who could guess
If ever more should meet those mutual eyes,
Since upon night so sweet such awful morn could rise!
And there was mounting in hot haste: the steed,
The mustering squadron, and the clattering car,
Went pouring forward with impetuous speed,
And swiftly forming in the ranks of war;
And the deep thunder peal on peal afar;
And near, the beat of the alarming drum
Roused up the soldier ere the morning star;
While thronged the citizens with terror dumb,
Or whispering, with white lips — "The foe! They come! they come!"
And wild and high the "Cameron's Gathering" rose,
The war-note of Lochiel, which Albyn's hills
Have heard, and heard, too, have her Saxon foes:
How in the noon of night that pibroch thrills
Savage and shrill! But with the breath which fills
Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers
With the fierce native daring which instils
The stirring memory of a thousand years,
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's ears!

And Ardennes waves above them her green leaves,
 Dewy with nature's tear-drops, as they pass,
 Grieving, if aught inanimate e'er grieves,
 Over the unreturning brave, — alas!
 Ere evening to be trodden like the grass
 Which now beneath them, but above shall grow
 In its next verdure, when this fiery mass
 Of living valour, rolling on the foe,
 And burning with high hope, shall moulder cold and low.
 Last noon beheld them full of lusty life,
 Last eve in Beauty's circle proudly gay,
 The midnight brought the signal-sound of strife,
 The morn the marshalling in arms, — the day
 Battle's magnificently-stern array!
 The thunder-clouds close o'er it, which when rent
 The earth is covered thick with other clay,
 Which her own clay shall cover, heaped and pent,
 Rider and horse, — friend, foe, — in one red burial blent!

Harold's song from the Rhineland

addressed to his half-sister Augusta in England.

The castled crag of Drachenfels
 Frowns o'er the wide and winding Rhine,
 Whose breast of waters broadly swells
 Between the banks which bear the vine,
 And hills all rich with blossomed trees,
 And fields which promise corn and wine.
 And scattered cities crowning these,
 Whose far white walls along them shine,
 Have strewed a scene, which I should see
 With double joy wert thou with me.
 And peasant girls, with deep-blue eyes,
 And hands which offer early flowers,
 Walk smiling o'er this paradise;
 Above, the frequent feudal towers
 Through green leaves lift their walls of gray,
 And many a rock which steeply lowers,
 And noble arch in proud decay,
 Look o'er this vale of vintage bowers;
 But one thing want these banks of Rhine, —
 Thy gentle hand to clasp in mine!
 I send the lilies given to me;
 Though long before thy hand they touch,
 I know that they must withered be,
 But yet reject them not as such;

For I have cherished them as dear,
 Because they yet may meet thine eye,
 And guide thy soul to mine even here,
 When thou behold'st them drooping nigh,
 And know'st them gathered by the Rhine,
 And offered from my heart to thine !
 The river nobly foams and flows,
 The charm of this enchanted ground,
 And all its thousand turns disclose
 Some fresher beauty varying round :
 The haughtiest breast its wish might bound
 Through life to dwell delighted here ;
 Nor could on earth a spot be found
 To nature and to me so dear,
 Could thy dear eyes in following mine
 Still sweeten more these banks of Rhine !

[Childe Harold's Pilgrimage, III [1816], 55].

Manfred's Monologue in the night of his death when the remembrance of a moon-light evening in the Coliseum comes back to his mind.

I do remember me, that in my youth,
 When I was wandering — upon such a night
 I stood within the Coliseum's wall,
 'Midst the chief relics of almighty Rome ;
 The trees which grew along the broken arches
 Waved dark in the blue midnight, and the stars
 Shone through the rents of ruin ; from afar
 The watch-dog bay'd beyond the Tiber ; and
 More near from out the Cæsars' palace came
 The owl's long cry, and, interruptedly,
 Of distant sentinels the fitful song
 Began and died upon the gentle wind.
 Some cypresses beyond the time-worn breach
 Appear'd to skirt the horizon, yet they stood
 Within a bowshot. Where the Cæsars dwelt,
 And dwell the tuneless birds of night, amidst
 A grove which springs through levell'd battlements,
 And twines its roots with the imperial hearths,
 Ivy usurps the laurel's place of growth ;
 But the gladiators' bloody Circus stands,
 A noble wreck in ruinous perfection,
 While Caesar's chambers, and the Augustan halls,
 Grovel on earth in indistinct decay. —
 And thou didst shine, thou rolling moon, upon
 All this, and cast a wide and tender light,
 Which soften'd down the hoar austerity

Of rugged desolation, and fill'd up,
 As 'twere anew, the gaps of centuries;
 Leaving that beautiful which still was so,
 And making that which was not, till the place
 Became religion, and the heart ran o'er
 With silent worship of the great of old! —
 The dead but sceptred sovereigns, who still rule
 Our spirits from their urns. [Manfred: a dramatic poem (1817) III, 4].

Alfred Tennyson (1809—1892; poet laureate ¹) from 1850—1892) is the most popular of all modern poets, the favourite of all classes of society. In 'The Idylls of the King' he has recalled to life the romantic story of King Arthur and his Round Table.

Ulysses (1842).

It little profits that an idle king,
 By this still hearth, among these barren crags,
 Match'd with an aged wife, I mete and dole
 Unequal laws unto a savage race,
 That hoard, and sleep, and feed, and know not me.
 I cannot rest from travel: I will drink
 Life to the lees: all times I have enjoy'd
 Greatly, have suffer'd greatly, both with those
 That loved me, and alone; on shore, and when
 Thro' scudding drifts the rainy Hyades
 Vext the dim sea: I am become a name;
 For always roaming with a hungry heart
 Much have I seen and known: cities of men
 And manners, climates, councils, governments,
 Myself not least, but honour'd of them all;
 And drunk delight of battle with my peers,
 Far on the ringing plains of windy Troy.
 I am a part of all that I have met;
 Yet all experience is an arch wherethro'
 Gleams that untravell'd world, whose margin fades
 For ever and for ever when I move.
 How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
 'To rust unburnish'd, not to shine in use!

) Poet laureate — is no longer as it used to be formerly — an officer of the king's household, whose business was to compose an ode annually for the king's birthday, or other suitable occasions; now the designation 'poet laureate' is a mere honorary title officially given, the office being a sinecure. — Laureate means 'crowned, or decked, with laurel'. The appellation was taken from the English universities, where, in the Middle Ages, one who received an honourable degree in grammar (which then included poetry and rhetoric) was called poet laureate as being presented with a wreath of laurel. — The title of poet laureate was not unknown on the Continent. Petrarch, the famous Italian poet (1304—1374), preferring to the wreath of laurel offered him by the University of Paris the one presented to him by the Roman senate, was, on Easterday 1341, solemnly crowned poet laureate in the Capitol. In Germany Ulrich von Hutten, the eminent humanist (1488—1523), received, for his polished Latin style, the same distinction from the Emperor Maximilian in 1517.

As tho' to breathe were life. Life piled on life
Were all too little, and of one to me
Little remains: but every hour is saved
From that eternal silence, something more,
A bringer of new things; and vile it were
For some three suns to store and hoard myself,
And this gray spirit yearning in desire
To follow knowledge like a sinking star,
Beyond the utmost bound of human thought.

This is my son, mine own Telemachus,
To whom I leave the sceptre and the isle—
Well-loved of me, discerning to fulfil
This labour, by slow prudence to make mild
A rugged people, and thro' soft degrees
Subdue them to the useful and the good.
Most blameless is he, centred in the sphere
Of common duties, decent not to fail
In offices of tenderness, and pay
Meet adoration to my household gods,
When I am gone. He works his work, I mine.

There lies the port; the vessel puffs her sail,
There gloom the dark broad seas. My mariners,
Souls that have toil'd, and wrought, and thought with me—
That ever with a frolic welcome took
The thunder and the sunshine, and opposed
Free hearts, free foreheads—you and I are old;
Old age hath yet his honour and his toil;
Death closes all: but something ere the end,
Some work of noble note, may yet be done,
Not unbecoming men that strove with Gods.
The lights begin to twinkle from the rocks:
The long day wanes: the slow moon climbs: the deep
Moans round with many voices. Come, my friends,
'Tis not too late to seek a newer world.
Push off, and sitting well in order smite
The sounding furrows; for my purpose holds
To sail beyond the sunset, and the baths
Of all the western stars, until I die.
It may be that the gulfs will wash us down:
It may be we shall touch the Happy Isles,
And see the great Achilles, whom we knew.
Tho' much is taken, much abides; and tho'
We are not now that strength which in old days
Moved Earth and Heaven; that which we are, we are;
One equal temper of heroic hearts,

Made weak by time and fate, but strong in will
To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield.

At the siege of Sebastopol (in 1854, during the Crimean War, when England and France had taken the side of Turkey against Russia), an English regiment, obeying an order that had been misunderstood, charged the Russian guns.

The Charge of the Light Brigade (1854).

Half a league, half a league,
Half a league onward,
All in the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred.
"Forward, the Light Brigade!
Charge for the guns!" he said:
Into the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred.
"Forward, the Light Brigade!"
Was there a man dismay'd?
Not tho' the soldier knew
Some one had blunder'd.
Theirs not to make reply,
Theirs not to reason why,
Theirs but to do and die:
Into the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred.

Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon in front of them
Volley'd and thunder'd;
Storm'd at with shot and shell,
Boldly they rode and well,
Into the jaws of Death,
Into the mouth of Hell
Rode the six hundred.

Flash'd all their sabres bare,
Flash'd as they turn'd in air,
Sabring the gunners there,
Charging an army, while
All the world wonder'd:
Plunged in the battery-smoke
Right thro' the line they broke;
Cossack and Russian
Reel'd from the sabre-stroke

Shatter'd and sunder'd.
Then they rode back, but not,
Not the six hundred.

Cannon to right of them,
Cannon to left of them,
Cannon behind them
Volley'd and thunder'd;
Storm'd at with shot and shell,
While horse and hero fell,
They that had fought so well,
Came thro' the jaws of Death,
Back from the mouth of Hell,
All that was left of them,
Left of six hundred.

When can their glory fade?
Oh the wild charge they made!
All the world wonder'd.
Honour the charge they made!
Honour the Light Brigade,
Noble six hundred!

Quotation: Better not to be at all than not to be noble. — Kind hearts are more than coronets.

In the Victorian era poetry has been studied and practised as an art with great care so that even minor poets have acquired an extraordinary finish and a great mastery of novel poetic forms. This attention to forms, beginning with Keats, made Tennyson one of the most consummate artists in the history of English verse.

Recent poetry has been graceful or meditative rather than powerful and passionate. It excels in the lyric rather than in the dramatic form; it delights in expressing the poet's own shifting moods, and, as a rule, it leaves to the prose novel the rigorous objective portrayal of life. It finds a relief in escaping from the confined air of our modern life into the freedom and simplicity of nature. The supremacy of science and the advance of modern democracy, the two motive forces in English life and thought since 1830, have acted on poetry in different ways. There are poets who, thinking themselves fallen on evil days, and repelled by the sordidness, ugliness, and materialism of a scientific and mercantile generation, seek to escape in poetry to a world less vulgar and more to their minds. Like John Keats (1795—1821), they ignore the peculiar hopes and perplexities, of their age, to wander after the all-sufficient spirit of beauty. This tendency is seen in the early classical poems of Matthew Arnold (1822—1888), in the *Atalanta in Calydon* of Algernon Charles Swinburne (1837—1909), or in the poems of those associated with the English Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood, as Dante Ga-

briel Rossetti (1828—1882), with his odour of Italy, his rich and curious felicity of phrase, and his warm and highly wrought beauty.

The poetry of evasion, as it may be called, is seen also in the early work of William Morris (1834—1896), in his classic study of the *Life and Death of Jason* (1867), and in his *Earthly Paradise* (1868—1870), a gathering of beautiful stories from the myths and legends of many lands. The career of this poet is especially significant: it exemplifies not only the longing of a beauty-loving nature to escape from a sordid and utilitarian age, but also the imperious pressure, even on men of such a temper, of social issues. For in his later life, William Morris turned, as John Ruskin did, from the garden of art, to study the problem of social reform and to face the issues of the street.

The poetry of doubt: Other poets, unsettled by doubts which have come with modern science, and unable to reconcile faith with the new knowledge of their time, carry into their work that uncertainty and unbelief which is the moral disease of their generation.

Happily the two greatest and most representative poets of the Victorian epoch, Alfred Tennyson and Robert Browning (1812—1889), belong to neither of these groups. Differing widely in manner and in their theory of art, they have at least one point in common. Both face frankly and boldly the many questions of their age; neither evading nor succumbing to its intellectual difficulties, they still find beauty and goodness in the life of the world about them; holding fast the 'things which are not seen' as a present reality, they still cherish "the faith which looks through death", always revealing the note of an invincible faith and an undiminished hope. Unhappily Browning is often obscure, too much philosophical thought, abstrusely and subtly expressed, impeding the lucidity of poetical diction.

John Keats, 1795—1821. Quotations: A thing of beauty is a joy for ever. — Beauty is truth, truth beauty, — that is all Ye know on earth, and all ye need to know.

Among the many poets of the beginning of the twentieth century none perhaps is more fascinating than Henry Newbolt (born 1862), the brilliant author of the beautiful gathering of stirring patriotic poems *Admirals All* (1897), and other poems.

Clifton Chapel. ¹⁾

This is the Chapel: here, my son,
Your father thought the thoughts of youth,
And heard the words that one by one
The touch of Life has turned to truth.

¹⁾ Copyright. By permission of the author. — Clifton Chapel = the Chapel of Clifton College [Clifton = West suburb of Bristol], one of the two schools from which the largest number of boys pass direct into the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and the Royal Military College, Sandhurst. Not a few Cliftonians have become distinguished officers.

Here, in a day that is not far,
 You too may speak with noble ghosts
 Of manhood and the vows of war
 You made before the Lord of Hosts.
 To set the Cause above renown,
 To love the game beyond the prize,
 To honour, while you strike him down,
 The foe that comes with fearless eyes:
 To count the life of battle good,
 And dear the land that gave you birth,
 And dearer yet the brotherhood
 That binds the brave of all the earth —
 My son, the oath is yours: the end
 Is His, Who built the world of strife,
 Who gave His children Pain for friend
 And Death for surest hope of life.
 To-day and here the fight's begun,
 Of the great fellowship you 're free;
 Henceforth the School and you are one,
 And what you are, the race shall be.
 God send you fortune: yet be sure,
 Among the lights that gleam and pass,
 You 'll live to follow none more pure
 Than that which glows on yonder brass:
 "*Qui procul hinc*," the legend's writ —
 The frontier-grave is far away —
 "*Qui ante diem perit*:
Sed miles, sed pro patriâ."

[The Island Race, 1898].

Henry Carey († 1743) composed the melody to the English National Hymn. The author of the words is unknown.

The English National Anthem.

God save our gracious King,
 God save our noble King:
 God save the King!
 Send him victorious,
 Happy, and glorious,
 Long to reign over us,
 God save the King!
 O Lord, our God, arise,
 Scatter his enemies,
 And make them fall!

Confound their politics,
 Frustrate their knavish tricks;
 On Thee our hopes we fix:
 God save the King!

Thy choicest gifts in store
 On him be pleased to pour,
 Long may he reign!
 May he defend our laws
 And ever give us cause,
 To sing, with heart and voice,
 God save the King!

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807—1882) is the household poet of America. From a journey through Europe he returned home deeply impressed by European, and particularly German, literature. He was a great friend of Freiligrath's (1810—1876).

A Psalm of Life.

Tell me not in mournful numbers:
 "Life is but an empty dream!"
 For the soul is dead that slumbers,
 And things are not what they seem.
 Life is real, life is earnest!
 And the grave is not its goal;
 "Dust thou art, to dust returnest",
 Was not spoken of the soul.
 Not enjoyment, and not sorrow,
 Is our destined end or way;
 But to act, that each to-morrow
 Find us farther than to-day.
 Art is long, and Time is fleeting,
 And our hearts, though stout and brave,
 Still, like muffled drums, are beating
 Funeral marches to the grave.
 In the world's broad field of battle,
 In the bivouac of Life,
 Be not like dumb, driven cattle,
 Be a hero in the strife!
 Trust no Future, howe'er pleasant,
 Let the dead Past bury its dead!
 Act — act in the living Present!
 Heart within, and God o'erhead!
 Lives of great men all remind us
 We can make our lives sublime,

And, departing, leave behind us
 Footprints on the sands of time;
 Footprints, that perhaps another,
 Sailing o'er life's solemn main,
 A forlorn and shipwrecked brother,
 Seeing, shall take heart again.
 Let us, then, be up and doing,
 With a heart for any fate;
 Still achieving, still pursuing,
 Learn to labour and to wait!

In the 18th century England grew greater and greater. By the treaty of Paris (1763) England's power reached its culminating point; by this England became an object of jealousy and dread to all Europe. But then occurred a sudden shock by the secession of the American colonies. The incident told in the following poem relates to the beginning of the American War of Independence (1775—1783). The inhabitants of Boston (Massachusetts) having refused to pay a tax upon tea, soldiers were sent out to force the colonists to obey the orders of the British Parliament. As the Americans prepared to resist and were collecting ammunition of war at Concord, a British force marched forth to seize the arms. They did succeed in destroying the stores, but had to retreat, and many of them were killed. The first serious fighting was on a hill near Boston called Bunker's Hill. The Declaration of Independence was issued at Philadelphia, on July 4th, 1776; in memory of which the Great Centennial Exhibition was held at Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, in 1876.

Paul Revere's Ride.

Listen, my children, and you shall hear
 Of the midnight ride of Paul Revere,
 On the eighteenth of April, in Seventy-five;
 Hardly a man is now alive
 Who remembers that famous day and year.
 He said to his friend, "If the British march
 By land or sea from the town to-night,
 Hang a lantern aloft in the belfry arch
 Of the North Church tower as a signal light, —
 One, if by land, and two, if by sea:
 And I on the opposite shore will be,
 Ready to ride and spread the alarm
 Through every Middlesex village and farm,
 For the country-folk to be up and to arm."

Then he said, "Good night!" and with muffled oar
 Silently rowed to the Charlestown shore,

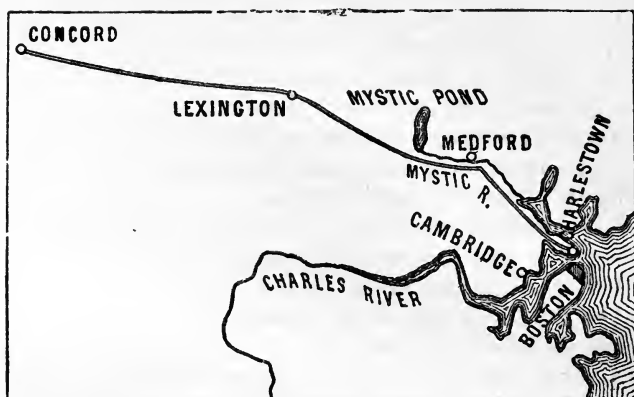
Just as the moon rose over the bay,
Where swinging wide at her moorings lay
The Somerset, British man-of-war;
A phantom-ship, with each mast and spar
Across the moon like a prison-bar,
And a huge black hulk, that was magnified
By its own reflection in the tide.

Meanwhile, his friend, through alley and street
Wanders and watches with eager ears,
Till in the silence around him he hears
The muster of men at the barrack-door,
The sound of arms, and the tramp of feet,
And the measured tread of the grenadiers,
Marching down to their boats on the shore.

Then he climbed the tower of the old North Church
By the wooden stairs, with stealthy tread,
To the belfry-chamber overhead,
And startled the pigeons from their perch
On the sombre rafters, that round him made
Masses and moving shapes of shade, —
By the trembling ladder, steep and tall.
To the highest window in the wall,
Where he paused to listen and look down
A moment on the roofs of the town,
And the moonlight flowing over all.

Beneath, in the churchyard, lay the dead,
In their night encampment on the hill,
Wrapped in silence so deep and still
That he could hear, like a sentinel's tread,
The watchful night-wind, as it went
Creeping along from tent to tent,
And seeming to whisper, "All is well!"
A moment only he feels the spell
Of the place and the hour, and the secret dread
Of the lonely belfry and the dead;
For suddenly all his thoughts are bent
On a shadowy something far away,
Where the river widens to meet the bay, —
A line of black that bends and floats
On the rising tide, like a bridge of boats.

Meanwhile, impatient to mount and ride,
Booted and spurred, with a heavy stride
On the opposite shore walked Paul Revere.
Now he patted his horse's side,
Now gazed at the landscape far and near,



Then, impetuous, stamped the earth,
 And turned and tightened his saddlegirth;
 But mostly he watched with eager search
 The belfry-tower of the old North Church,
 As it rose above the graves on the hill,
 Lonely and spectral and sombre and still.
 And lo! as he looks, on the belfry's height
 A glimmer, and then a gleam of light!
 He springs to the saddle, the bridle he turns,
 But lingers and gazes, till full on his sight
 A second lamp in the belfry burns!

A hurry of hoofs in a village street,
 A shape in the moonlight, a bulk in the dark,
 And beneath, from the pebbles, in passing, a spark
 Struck out by a steed flying fearless and fleet:
 That was all! And yet, through the gloom and the light,
 The fate of a nation was riding that night;
 And the spark struck out by that steed, in his flight,
 Kindled the land into flame with its heat.

He has left the village and mounted the steep,
 And beneath him, tranquil and broad and deep,
 Is the Mystic, meeting the ocean tides;
 And under the alders, that skirt its edge,
 Now soft on the sand, now loud on the ledge,
 Is heard the tramp of his steed as he rides.

It was twelve by the village clock
 When he crossed the bridge into Medford town.
 He heard the crowing of the cock,
 And the barking of the farmer's dog,
 And felt the damp of the river fog,
 That rises after the sun goes down.

It was one by the village clock
 When he galloped into Lexington.
 He saw the gilded weathercock
 Swim in the moonlight as he passed,
 And the meeting-house windows, blank and bare,
 Gaze at him with a spectral glare,
 As if they already stood aghast
 At the bloody work they would look upon.

It was two by the village clock
 When he came to the bridge in Concord town.
 He heard the bleating of the flock,
 And the twitter of birds among the trees,
 And felt the breath of the morning breeze
 Blowing over the meadows brown.
 And one was safe and asleep in his bed
 Who at the bridge would be first to fall,
 Who that day would be lying dead,
 Pierced by a British musket-ball.

You know the rest. In the books you have read
 How the British Regulars fired and fled, —
 How the farmers gave them ball for ball,
 From behind each fence and farmyard wall,
 Chasing the red-coats down the lane,
 Then crossing the fields to emerge again
 Under the trees at the turn of the road,
 And only pausing to fire and load.

So through the night rode Paul Revere;
 And so through the night went his cry of alarm
 To every Middlesex village and farm, —
 A cry of defiance and not of fear,
 A voice in the darkness, a knock at the door,
 And a word that shall echo for evermore!
 For, borne on the night-wind of the Past,
 Through all our history, to the last,
 In the hour of darkness and peril and need,
 The people will waken and listen to hear
 The hurrying hoof-beats of that steed,
 And the midnight message of Paul Revere.

[Tales of a Wayside Inn, I. 1863].

The following piece of poetry — by a minor poet — shows some lofty ideas expressed in a popular ballad-style.

Don't give up the Ship.

You 're on the sea of life, boys,
 Your ship is stanch and strong;

You 're sailing smoothly now, boys,
 But storms will come ere long.
 Then boldly furl your sail, boys,
 And let the tempest 'rip';
 Stand bravely by the helm, boys,
 And "Don't give up the Ship."
 Though clouds o'ercast the sky, boys,
 The sun is bright behind;
 And though the waves roll high, boys,
 They 'll soon calm down, you 'll find.
 So always keep up heart, boys,
 With cheerful eye and lip;
 And let your watchword e'er, boys,
 Be, "Don't give up the Ship."
 Beyond the raging sea, boys,
 You 'll find at last a rest,
 If only on your trip, boys,
 You always do your best.
 There waits for each a crown, boys;
 So take a manly grip;
 There waits for all eternal life
 Who "Don't give up the ship."

Versification: a few hints on metre.

1. Rhythm in English depends on (or: is governed by) stress; it is **accentual** (akzentuierend).

English rhythm is distinct from that of the ancient Latin and Greek verse, which was **quantitative** (quantitierend); it also differs from the French verse, which is **syllabic** (silben-zählend, syllable-counting).

2. An English metrical line or verse is a series of rhythm-waves, each wave being formed by a number (generally a pair) of syllables one of which receives a particular stress (accent).

These rhythm-waves are either rising or falling. They are said to be rising when the stressed syllable is preceded by one (or two) unstressed syllables.

3. Most metrical lines are divided into two parts by a breathing place or pause (often called *caesura*) coincident with a pause, or rest, in the sense. [The metrical pause is coincident with (coincides with — occupies the same place as) the sense-pause].

4. English poetry is distinguished by a strong sense of general harmony, which is satisfied by **the one constant feature in a line of verse, i. e. the occurrence of a fixed number of beats, or stresses.** English poetry objects to monotony, which arises from continued mechanical regularity; and the nearer it gets to nature, to the expression of strong passion and imagination, the more remote it thinks the possibility of having its harmony determined by the finger tips. The structure of an English line being wholly different from that of Greek or Latin verse, it is impossible to scan English verse as if it had been built up on the ancient system.

5. To avoid monotony, to bring about full harmony between the metrical structure and the poetical word-expression, English poetry freely makes use of the following **normal variations**: —

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| a) in the rhythm | } in the interior of a verse |
| b) " " arsis | |
| c) " " thesis | |
| d) at the end of a line. | |

a) **in the rhythm**: Reversal of rhythm. The first rhythm-wave of a verse, or the wave following the *cæsura*, are often reversed, i. e. in a line with rising rhythm they are replaced by a wave of falling rhythm, &c.

b) **in the arsis** (which in English means — not the raising of the foot in beating time, but — the raising of the voice to greater force on a stressed syllable): the stressed syllables are not always equally strong, i. e. a full-stressed syllable may occasionally be replaced by a half-strong syllable. "It is the half-strong syllables that give the impression of wave and ripple, ripple and wave, wherein lies the secret of the subtle, elusive rhythm of our greatest poetry. The other impression, that of wave following wave in equal motion, is created by the line where all the stresses are strong."

c) **in the thesis** (i. e. the unstressed part of a rhythm-wave): the place of a single weak (unstressed) syllable may be supplied by

α) a pause, i. e. the unstressed syllable may be omitted, which is not unfrequently the case at the beginning of a line, or (less frequently) at the beginning of the second part of a line (after the *cæsura*);

β) the addition of an extra unstressed syllable — added at the end of a verse or at the beginning of the second part of a line (after the *cæsura*).

d) **at the end of a line** the music of the verse comes to an end, but not necessarily its sense: each line may be completely divided from the next one — it may be end-stopped; or it may have its sense running on (overflowing) into the next line — it may be run on (a run-on line).

6. The verse most employed in English dramatic and epic poetry is **blank verse** (literally: verse without rime), which is a series of five rising rhythm-waves, each wave being formed by a pair of syllables the second of which receives the stress.

7. As in German one often speaks of a *fünffüßiger reimloser Jambus* to denote a *reimlosen Fünfstakter mit steigendem Rhythmus*, so in English the old familiar terms of Greek and Latin prosody are still frequently employed, so that a rhythm-wave is called 'a foot', a rising rhythm 'iambic' (or 'anapaestic'), a falling rhythm 'trochaic' (or 'dactylic'), and blank verse is sometimes spoken of as 'the five-foot iambic measure rimeless', or 'the unrimed iambic pentameter'. [The typical line of blank verse consists of ten syllables, with five stresses, which fall on the even syllables]. An iambic (less frequently: an iambus, *plu*: iambuses, iambi) is a reversed trochee; the reverse of a dactyl is an anapaest.

8. **Rimes** (rhymes) are either masculine (single, strong) — or feminine (double, weak).

They are arranged either in pairs — or in triplets — or alternately — or they are interwoven.

A pair of successive lines of the same length and riming together is called a **couplet**. The five-stressed couplet with rising rhythm is called '**the heroic couplet**'. [Pope's *Homer* is composed in 'heroics'].

9. A combination of three or more rimed lines recurring in a like arrangement in the same poem is called a **stanza**.

The stanza occupies an intermediate position between the continuous verse of an epic poem like '*Paradise Lost*' and the pointed brevity of the couplet.

The original idea conveyed in the name stanza is stopping-place: each

stanza stands distinct from its neighbour, is complete in itself, has a strong sense-pause at its end. Occasionally poets produce a fine effect by running on from stanza to stanza.

A stanza consisting of four lines is called a four-lined stanza; one of six lines, a six-lined stanza, and so on.

10. Byron's *Childe Harold* is written in the form of verse known as **the Spenserian stanza**. It is so called because Spenser used it in his *Fairy Queen*.

It consists of 9 iambic lines, 8 of which are of equal length (of 5 accents), whereas the last (which is called an Alexandrine) has one rhythm-wave (one foot) more than the others.

In each Spenserian stanza there are three — and only three — rimes, falling in the following order: — ab ab bc bc c. Lines 1, 3 rime together (rime with each other); 2, 4, 5, 7 have another rime, and lines 6, 8, 9 a third.

11. A special combination of four stanzas is the **sonnet**, 'a little song', of Italian origin. The sonnet is a short poem of fourteen lines — with four (rarely five or three) rimes arranged in a certain special order — and (generally) with a break or pause at the close of the eighth line. The sonnet consists of an octave (or two four-lined stanzas of five accents — with only two rimes), followed by a sestet (two three-lined stanzas).

12. A set of words recurring — in the same poem — at the end of each stanza is called a **burden** (chorus, refrain).

13. **Archaisms**. Poets retain longer than prose writers forms of diction belonging to an earlier period of the language and no longer in common use. Instances of such archaic (or obsolete) forms are: —

thou instead of *you* — *ye* for *you* — *his* = *its* — the personal pronoun instead of the reflexive (*me* = *myself*) — *which* rel. = *who* — *to do*, before an infinitive, used affirmatively as a mere expletive, without any emphasis — *spake* = *spoke*, &c. — *-th* (as termination of the 3rd si. pres. ind.) instead of *-s* — *-ed* pronounced as a full syllable (and sometimes marked *-èd*) in cases where it is simply *-d*, or *-t*, now — *y-* used as a prefix to the past partic. of verbs (corresponding to the Old English *ge-*, German *ge-*): *yclad* (= clad, clothed), etc.

It is — in most cases — nothing but archaism in language that accounts for certain apparent metrical imperfections or poetical licences one occasionally meets with in modern poets, as e. g.: —

loose (imperfect, faulty) rimes [rimes of spelling rather than of sound] such as *move* riming with *love*, *bar*: *war*, — or

accent variations such as *complete* instead of *complète*, *without* for *withoût*, *seûre* for *secûre*, etc., — or

syllabic variations such as *motion*, *conscience*, *marriage* &c., used as trisyllables, instead of dissyllables.

These variations go back to a time when the language was more pliable than to-day, and when some words (especially those of foreign origin) had still a variable accent. And most of the rimes which are imperfect to-day were perfect formerly when the English vowels were pronounced differently from what they are now. The English vowel-system has indeed within the last three hundred years undergone so great changes that Shakespeare listening to his plays to-day would have some difficulty in following his own words.

Note. In reading imperfect rimes — no matter whether their imperfection is due to an admitted archaism or to a deficiency of the poet's art — no attempt is made to redress the shortcomings of vocalic consonance by altering the ordinary pronunciation (with the only exception of the noun *wind*, which, when occurring in rime, has its *i* pronounced with the sound of its alphabetical name).

14. Other metrical licences: — of two vowels coming together the first is sometimes slurred — *th* or *v* between two vowels is sometimes dropped.

ENGLISH PROSE WRITERS.

The Revival of Learning in England, 1470—1558. In the fifteenth century England lay

“between two worlds, one dead,

The other powerless to be born.”

The fifteenth century is “the most barren” in the history of English literature. The feudal society of the Middle Ages was scattered by the Wars of the Roses (1455—1485), in which great numbers of the old nobility perished. The old learning — the outworn scholastic learning, the relic of the mediæval monastic schools — had ceased to satisfy; and the new learning — the humanistic movement of the Renaissance (Renaissance) — had, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, not yet reached England, though some rare individual minds such as Chaucer and Wyclif (*d.* 1384) had known it by anticipation. But soon it did come, and, towards the end of the century, England’s mental life was replenished and broadened by the new thoughts and impulses spreading from Italy.

The knowledge of Greek life and literature, almost wholly lost during the Middle Ages, had stirred Italy with the power of a fresh revelation. Chrysoloras, an ambassador from Constantinople (the capital of the Eastern or Byzantine Empire, 395—1453), had begun to teach Greek in 1395, and upon the fall of Constantinople (1453) numbers of Greek scholars took refuge in Italy, bringing precious manuscripts and the treasures of an old thought which Europe hailed as “new”.

Italy became the university of Europe, and towards the end of the fifteenth century English scholars learned at Padua, at Bologna, or at the Florence of Lorenzo de’ Medici, what they taught at Oxford or at Cambridge. Cornelius Vitelli, an Italian exile, taught Greek at Oxford before 1475; there, too, William Grocyn, an Englishman, lectured on Greek in 1491, after he had studied under Vitelli, and at Florence and Venice.

Among Grocyn’s hearers was the young **Sir Thomas More**, who was later to embody the new spirit in his *History of Richard III.*, and in the *Utopia*. We have thus an illustration of the way in which the new learning sprung from Italian to Englishman, and from the English scholar to the English writer, thus passing out of the college into the wider sphere of literature.

Sir Thomas More (1478—1535), a zealous Roman Catholic, and Lord Chancellor of England in 1529, was beheaded for denying the legality of Henry VIII.’s marriage with Anne Boleyn. Sir Thomas was a friend of Dean Colet (*d.* 1519), who studied the New Testament in the original, and who started a system of popular education by founding in 1512 the grammar school of St. Paul. More was a friend of Erasmus (1467—1536), the famous Dutch scholar, who taught Greek at Cambridge¹⁾, and wrote at More’s house in Chelsea (then out of Lon-

¹⁾ The great English scholar who after Erasmus — as Milton terms it — ‘taught Cambridge and King Edward Greek’ (in 1540), was Sir John Cheke (1514—1557).

don) his *Praise of Folly* (Encomium Moræ, 1509), a satire in Latin on the follies of the age. It was Erasmus who sent to him Hölbein (1498—1554), the great German painter, who many times painted More's portrait, and who, prior to making his personal acquaintance, had illustrated the Utopia, More's great book.

The title of More's 'Happy Republic' or 'Utopia' [1516] has given rise to the adjective 'utopian', now commonly used to qualify any fanciful or chimerical project, or even some unpractical scheme for the improvement of the conditions under which we live.

Utopia ('Nowhere', from οὐ, not, and τόπος, place; in Latin, '*Nequama*') is, a delightful description of an ideal state, a philosophic exposition of More's own views respecting the constitution and economy of a state, and of his opinions on education, marriage, the military system, and the like. The idea was, perhaps, suggested by the *Republic* of Plato, whose influence, or that of More, may be traced in many subsequent works of a somewhat similar character, e. g. Bacon's *New Atlantis*, 1621. Besides, men have at all times taken delight in devising and describing ideal states, the state not as it is, but as it ought to be. Cicero, the great Roman orator, wrote *De Republica* (concerning the state), and in early Christian times we have St. Augustine's *City of God* (= the Church, or whole body of believers: *De Civitate Dei*, 426).

Side by side with the revival of learning came the new means men had found for its diffusion. In 1476 Caxton set up his printing press at Westminster.

While the touch of Greek beauty and philosophy, restored and immortal after their burial of a thousand years, was thus re-animating England, like the rest of Europe, the horizon of the world was enlarged by a series of great discoveries. The Cape of Good Hope was discovered (1486), and the rounding of Africa made a new path to India (1498). Columbus penetrated the sea of darkness (1492), and (in 1497) the Cabots, sent by Henry VII., saw the mainland of America. Copernicus (1500) put forth his theory that — instead of being (according to the Ptolemaic system) the centre of the universe, round which the whole heavens revolved — the solid earth was but a satellite in motion round the central sun.

The Church too, was quickened by the currents of this new life. The Bible was translated. **William Tyndale's** New Testament was published in 1526. Tyndale determined the style of the English Bible, and the style of the Bible may be said to be to a certain extent the fountain-head of strength and beauty in the written English of to-day.

The following extract of Tyndale's Version, printed in parallel columns with the version of the King James's Bible of 1611, i. e. the so-called Authorized Version, and with the Revised Version of A. D. 1881, clearly show the importance of Tyndale's work, which indeed substantially is the English of to-day, whereas the passages below from the Old and Middle English versions will be of interest to the student of philology, illustrating as they do the change of the English language from a synthetic (or inflexional) into an analytic structure. The general tendency in the evolution of languages is for them to advance from the *synthetic* stage to that of *analytic*, in which the older inflexions are either dropped entirely, or replaced, where necessary for the sake of clearness, by prepositions or other little words.

S. Luke II, 8—10.

Tyndale's Version A. D. 1526.

8. And there were in the same region shepherdes abydinge in the felde and watching their flocke by night.

9. And loo: the angell of the lorde stode harde by them and the brightness of the lorde shone rounde aboute them and they were sore afrayed.

10. But the angell sayd unto them: Be not afrayed. For beholde I bringe you tydinges of greate joye that shall come to all the people.

Authorized Version A.D. 1611.

And there were in the same country shepherds abiding in the field, keeping watch over their flock by night.

And lo, the Angel of the Lord came upon them, and the glory of the Lord shone round about them, and they were sore afraid.

And the Angel said unto them, Fear not: For behold, I bring you good tidings of great joy, which shall be to all people.

Revised Version A. D. 1881.

And there were shepherds in the same country abiding in the field, and keeping watch by night over their flock.

And an angel of the Lord stood by them, and the glory of the Lord shone round about them: and they were sore afraid.

And the angel said unto them, Be not afraid; for behold, I bring you tidings of great joy, which shall be to all the people.

Old English (Anglo-Saxon) Version A. D. 1000.

8. And hyrdas wæron on þam ylcand rice waciende, and nihtwæccan healdende ofer hero heorda.

9. þa stōd Drihtnes engel wiþ hig, and Godes beorhtness him ymbe scean; and hi him mycelum ege ādrædon.

10. And sē engel him tō cwæd, Nelle gē ēow ādrædan; sōþlice nū ic ēow bodie mycelne gefēan, sē bid eallum folce.

Middle English Version. Wyclif and Purvey: A. D. 1388.

And scheepherdis weren in the same cuntre, wakyng and kepyng the watchis of the nyzt on her flock.

And lo! the aungel of the Lord stood bisidis hem, and the cleernesse of God schinede aboute hem; and thei dredden with greet drede.

And the aungel seide to them, Nyle ze drede; for lo! Y preche to zou a greet ioie, that schal be to al puple.

Elizabethan Period, 1558—1625: the Age of Spenser, Shakespeare, and Bacon.

Of the many prose writers that lived in the days of Good Queen Bess, the most noteworthy are **Sir Walter Raleigh**, historian, **John Lyly**, romance-writer and dramatist, and **Francis Bacon**, the philosopher and essayist.

Sir Walter Raleigh (1552—1618), the brilliant military and naval commander, the colonizer of Virginia (1584), and conqueror of Guiana, to whom tradition ascribes the introduction of potatoes and tobacco into England, is also distinguished as an author. More securely than on his other writings his literary glory rests upon his *History of the World* (which comes down only to the end of the Macedonian Monarchy, B. C. 168), 1614.

John Lyly (1553—1606) is famous for his style, which is called 'euphuism'.

Euphuism is a bombastic style of conversation and writing, affecting excessive elegance, high-flown refinement of language, fantastical conceits¹⁾ and gallant tropes. This style, which for some time was fashionable among the gallants and court beauties of Elizabeth, originated in two popular romances by John Lyly, the hero of which bore the fantastical name of Euphues. It seems that the word Euphues [Gr. *εὐφύης*, well-endowed by nature, from *εὖ* + *φύη* growth, *φύειν* to produce, to grow] was by some of the many imitators of Lyly's mannerism not knowing enough Greek to understand its true meaning supposed to imply the notion of 'fine talking' or something equivalent.

Euphuism is a kind of false worship of cultivated style and fine diction, an English cousin to the mannerism of the bad imitators of the French 'langage précieux' of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, which, to a considerable degree, infected literature, until it fell under the ridicule of Shakespeare, like the parallel absurdity in France, under the lash of Molière's *Précieuses Ridicules* and the *Critique de l'Ecole des Femmes*.

"Lyly's book *Euphues*, and the style of writing called after it *Euphuism*, were in a way the outcome of the time. Gorgeous pageants, such as the Earl of Leicester prepared for Elizabeth at Kenilworth in 1575 (and of which Sir Walter Scott gives a brilliant description in his novel of Kenilworth), were greatly liked. Extravagance in and over-ornamentation of dress was common; we have only to look at Roger's engraving of Queen Elizabeth to perceive it. A visit to Hatfield House (about 18 miles north of London, the stately mansion of the Marquis of Salisbury) or Longleat (between Bath and Bristol, the magnificent seat of the Marquis of Bath) shows us the elaboration of ornament in the houses built at that time, and Bacon's recommendation in his essay on *Gardens* to place cages of birds in the hedges reveals a taste for the artificial even in nature, and so there is less need for wonder that a like extravagance should have found its way into literary style. Even in its own day it was seen to be ridiculous. Shakespeare caricatures it in *Love's Labour's Lost* in the character of Armado, a fantastical Spaniard. His extravagances of speech are most diverting. Holofernes, another character in the play, describes Armado as "a man of fine new words, fashion's own knight — that hath a mint of phrases in his brain — one whom the music of his own vain tongue doth ravish like enchanting harmony." Again in *I Henry IV.* (II. 4), where Falstaff personates the king, he speaks in an Euphuistic style. As an example, we may take: "for though the camomile, the more it is trodden on the faster it grows, yet youth, the more it is wasted the sooner it wears."

In the novel of 'The Monastery', by Sir Walter Scott, Sir Piercie Shafton is a Euphuist, he is drawn in ridicule of the pedantic courtiers of Elizabeth's time.

¹⁾ The word 'conceit', which originally denotes 'thought', or 'conception', has several meanings, two of which may be mentioned here: — 1) 'conceit' nowadays generally means an over-weening and ill-grounded opinion of oneself; over-estimation of one's own qualities; personal vanity or pride; — 2) as a term of literature, 'conceit' (like the Italian 'conpetto', which is also used in English) designates a turn of thought or expression intended to be striking, witty, or poetical, but often rather far-fetched, strained, or insipid.

This change of meaning is particularly striking in the adjective. We find Chaucer spoken of formerly as a 'conceited clerk', which is a highly flattering term denoting 'a man of learning, full of happy thoughts and ingenuity'. — To-day 'a conceited fellow', or 'a man conceited of himself (of his proficiency, of his own qualities)' is hardly ever used but in an offensive (opprobrious) sense.

Francis Bacon (1561—1626), for some time lord chancellor of England (1618—1621), greatly contributed to English literature by introducing into it a new form of prose-writing: the *essay*.

The form was derived from the French. The first essayist was the philosopher Michel de Montaigne (1533—1597), whose essays appeared in 1580.

Essay is etymologically the same word as '*assay*' = a test, examination, or trial, of metals. *Essay* (as well as *assay* which originally is only a variation of *essay*) is derived from the Latin *exagium*, 'weighing', but used in Romanic in the wider sense of 'examination, trial, testing'. It is to be noted that Bacon always wrote '*essay of*', not '*essay on*'.

By an "*essay*", Bacon meant the first trial, or weighing, of a subject, as distinguished from a finished treatise. His *Essays* (1597; enlarged edition 1625) are pithy jottings on great subjects, informally set down, with no attempt to carry the thought to its full or natural conclusion. They read like the notebook of a profound thinker, a shrewd observer of life, a politic and active man of affairs. They are brief, suggestive, without an ornament, but closely packed with thought. They give us the concentrated results of Bacon's experience, and are often comparable to the proverbial sayings in which wise men have delighted since the days of Solomon. Often they go to the heart of the matter with one quick thrust, as in the famous sentence: —

"Prosperity is the blessing of the Old Testament, adversity is the blessing of the New, which carrieth the greater benediction and clearer revelation of God's favour."

As a philosopher Bacon has been called 'the father of modern science'. His merit lies in his indication of the Inductive Method, as opposed to the deductive Method of Aristotle.

The whole of Bacon's philosophy was directed against the system of the School-men, or Scholastic philosophers of the Middle Ages; it was a reversal of the outworn procedure of *à priori* reasoning. Bacon insisted upon the method of *à posteriori* investigation by observation and experiment: conclusions were to be reached by a process of induction.

Francis Bacon is sometimes called 'Lord Bacon', but this is an error. If his title of 'Lord' is used at all, it should be in company with the names that were given with that title, i. e. — either *Lord Verulam* (since 1618, when he was raised to peerage as 'Baron Verulam') — or *Lord St. Albans* (since 1621, when he was made Viscount St. Albans).

Quotation: I had rather believe all the fables in the Legend, and the Talmud, and the Alcoran, than that this universal frame is without a mind. And, therefore, God never wrought miracle to convince atheism, because His ordinary works convince it.

Civil War Period, 1625—1700: the Age of Milton.

As, after Chaucer, the Wars of the Roses were succeeded by a literary dearth, so now the Civil Wars and the Puritan Revolution gave rise to a temporary suspension of works of imagination. Milton, the great writer of the time, has three distinct periods in his literary career: in the first and last we find him in the dreamland of poetry, his middle period is the epoch of practical action.

Milton is the great pamphleteer of the civil war of the seventeenth century. His many pamphlets (or tracts) are almost all of them political or politico-religious. They all show his strong love for the cause of the Commonwealth and of Puritanism.

Many of these pamphlets are in Latin, a language which has always enjoyed an excellent liberty in the matter of personal abuse; while his English pamphlets, though splendidly sumptuous and eloquent, are generally overlaid with Latinisms. Under Oliver Cromwell (and also during the Protectorate of Richard Cromwell) Milton held (for eleven years) the post of Latin Secretary to the Committee of Foreign Affairs.

Another religious tract-writer, but not at all given to politics, was **John Bunyan**, 1628—1688, the author of *The Pilgrim's Progress*, the most popular and the most widely known of all English books.

It is said that — with the exception of the Bible and the 'Imitation of Christ' (by an unknown author, but often ascribed to Thomas à Kempis, about 1400) — no book has been translated into so many languages (over eighty in all).

'The Pilgrim's Progress from this World to that which is to come' is a great religious allegory. It is supposed to be a dream and to allegorize the life of a Christian from his conversion to his death. "Its characteristic peculiarity", says Macaulay, "is that it is the only work of its kind which possesses a strong human interest. Other allegories only amuse the fancy. The allegory of Bunyan has been read by many thousands with tears."

John Locke, 1632—1704, the philosopher, is eminently an inductive reasoner, and the most illustrious disciple of Bacon, whose mode of reasoning he adopted in a field of research till then considered as totally unamenable to the *à posteriori* logic, applying the method of experiment and observation to the obscure phenomena of the mental operations.

His object in writing his 'Essay on Human Understanding' (1689) was to give a rational and clear account of the nature of the human mind, of the real character of our ideas, and of the mode in which they are presented to the consciousness. He attributes them all, whatever be their nature, to two — and only two — sources; the first of these he calls Sensation, the second Reflection. He thus opposes the notion that there are any innate ideas, that is, ideas which have existed in the mind independently of impressions made upon the senses.

Quotation: New opinions are always suspected, and usually opposed, without any other reason, but because they are not already common.

The Eighteenth Century, while it lacks poetry of the highest order, exhibits an extraordinary development of prose.

Indications of the advent of a truer and more genuine school of poetry than the artificial correctness of the Popesque manner are, however, not wanting: Thomson in his *Seasons*, Macpherson's *Ossian*, Bishop Percy's *Reliques* (which had an influence on Bürger, Herder, and Goethe), and other poems are manifest signs of a growing impulse toward the poetry of nature and human life.

Among the opulence of prose-writers twelve names stand out conspicuous: Defoe, Swift, Addison — Dr. Samuel Johnson — Richardson, Fielding, Sterne, Smollet, Goldsmith — Gibbon, David Hume — and Adam Smith.

Daniel Defoe (1659—1731), journalist and man of letters. His best-known work is *Robinson Crusoe* 1719.

This novel was at once translated into German, and called forth an enormous number of imitations, so that almost every country in Germany — Saxony,

Silesia, Thuringia, Swabia — had its own 'Robinson'. Robinson Crusoe is a masterpiece and the classic of childhood. "Never", says Hippolyte Taine in his *History of English Literature*, "was art the tool of a more moral and a more thoroughly English work." — Defoe founded the story of Robinson Crusoe on the adventures of Alexander Selkirk, sailing-master of the 'Cinque Ports Galley', who was left by Captain Stradling on the desolate island of Juan Fernandez for four years and four months (1704—1709), when he was rescued by Captain Woodes Rogers and brought to England.

Jonathan Swift ('Dean Swift', Swift was dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin), 1667—1745, the greatest English prose satirist. The most popular of all his works, '*Gulliver's Travels*', has been the delight of young and old for nigh two hundred years.

Gulliver, first a surgeon, then a sea-captain, gets wrecked on the coast of Liliput, a country of pygmies, in the account of whose doings contemporary politics and politicians are severely satirized. Subsequently he is thrown among the people of Brobdingnag, giants of tremendous size. In his next voyage he is driven to Laputa, an empire of quack pretenders to science and knavish projectors. And in his fourth voyage he visits the Houyhnhnms (Whin'nms), where horses are the dominant powers.

Quotation: He was a bold man that first ate an oyster.

Joseph Addison, 1672—1719, essayist, poet, and statesman; contributed to Steele's *Tatler*, and produced with Steele the *Spectator* (1711—1712).

'The Tatler' and 'The Spectator' are two literary periodicals at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the good sense and delicate satire of which much contributed to improve the taste of the time. The character sketches in 'The Spectator' have delighted every generation of readers since they were created, and Sir Roger de Coverly (the hypothetical baronet of Cowerly [or Cowley] near Oxford) is a permanent figure in the gallery of literary portraits.

Dr. Samuel Johnson, 1709—1784, essayist and lexicographer. He held, in the eighteenth century, the same position of an 'undisputed dictator in the world of letters' as Ben Jonson did in the seventeenth. His famous *Dictionary*, on which he had been engaged nine years, appeared in 1755.

He instituted and during many years presided 'The Literary Club' formed of the ablest men in London. "Among the members were Oliver Goldsmith, the most genuine literary man of his time; Edmund Burke, the greatest of political thinkers; Sir Joshua Reynolds, the eminent artist; Gibbon, perhaps the greatest historian that England has produced; Sir William Jones, the greatest linguist of his age; Garrick, the most popular actor in London and other men noted for personal gifts — all admiring and paying loyal homage to Dr. Johnson". — In imitation of 'The Spectator' Dr. Johnson brought out two periodical papers 'The Rambler' and 'The Idler'.

Samuel Richardson, 1689—1761, novelist. — Richardson is often called the 'Father of the English Novel'; he is the eldest of the great trio (of novelists) who may be said to have definitively shaped the modern novel (Richardson, Fielding, Smollet).

Richardson's chief novels are: — '*Pamela*': or, 'Virtue Rewarded', and '*Clarissa Harlowe*'. The latter work, which Dr. Samuel Johnson declared to

be the first book in the world for its knowledge of the human heart, won its author a European fame. Richardson's novels represent the didacticism of his time, and owe their power mainly to their earnestness, minute relation, and *sentimentalism*. *Clarissa* is one of the masterpieces of English fiction. Richardson exercised a great influence on German and French literature (Gellert, Lessing, Wieland, Rousseau). In writing his 'Nouvelle Héloïse' Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712—1778) borrowed from Richardson the epistolary form of his novels, an example which later on was imitated by Goethe, in his 'letter-novel' of 'The Sorrows of Werther' (1774).

Henry Fielding, 1707—1754, novelist; one of the great English humorists, author of 'Tom Jones'.

Fielding's masterpiece is 'The History of Tom Jones, a Foundling', which forms a brilliant picture of the open-air, healthy, vigorous life of the eighteenth century in country, town, and village. As a graphic representation of contemporary life and character Tom Jones is the greatest of English novels. Fielding, who excels in the portrayal of daily life and manners, is qualified by Byron 'the prose Homer of human nature.'

Rev. Laurence Sterne, 1713—1768, humorist and sentimentalist. His great novel is 'Tristram Shandy'. His 'Sentimental Journey through France and Italy' also ranks among the famous classics, unrivalled in style, originality, whim, and pathos.

The novel of 'Tristram Shandy' has excited the admiration, and called forth the laughter and the tears, of many generations of readers. Carlyle classes Sterne with the Spanish poet Cervantes (1547—1616) among the great humorists of the world.

Tobias Smollet, 1721—1771, novelist, one of the great humorists of the eighteenth century.

Smollet ranks with Richardson and Fielding as one of the standard novelists of the eighteenth century, founders of the English school of prose fiction. [See Richardson]. His great novels are: 'The Adventures of Roderick Random' (the first English sea-novel), and 'The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle'.

Smollet is the first to have introduced the delineation of national types into English novels, and to have acclimatized in England the 'picaresque' novel (the novel of personal adventure, with its purely external treatment of life).

The picaresque novel is of Spanish origin. The novel is so named from the principal person being a 'picaro' — that is, a rascal, knave, or rogue. The 'Gil Blas' (1735) of Lesage (in imitation of which 'Roderick Random' has been composed) is an instance of a French picaresque novel.

Oliver Goldsmith, 1728—1774, Irish poet and miscellaneous writer (novelist, dramatist, and essayist), author of 'The Vicar of Wakefield', a novel which has become one of the classics of the world.

Sir Walter Scott says of it: — 'We read "The Vicar of Wakefield" in youth and age — we return to it again and again, and bless the memory of an author who contrives so well to reconcile us to human nature'.

Among Goldsmith's other works are: — 'The Traveller', and 'The Deserted Village' (two didactic-descriptive poems), and 'She Stoops to Conquer' (a comedy).

Quotation: Ill fares the land, to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay.

Edward Gibbon, 1737–1794, the greatest historian of the eighteenth century. Chief work: '*Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*'.

This comprehensive work comprises the death of the old Pagan world and the birth of the new Christian world, the greatest transition in history; it includes the ruin of the Western Empire by the Teutonic invaders, the growth of the Early Christian Church, the spread of Byzantine power and the end of the Eastern Empire down to the fall of Constantinople (1453).

'That Gibbon should ever be displaced seems impossible', says Freeman. Whatever else is read, Gibbon must be read too'.

Parts of that great work were written at Lausanne in Switzerland, where Gibbon spent about 17 years of his life. During his first stay at Lausanne (1753–1758) Gibbon had become attached to Mademoiselle Susanne Curchod (afterwards wife of Necker, the French financier, and mother of Madame de Staël), and would have married her but for his father's opposition.

David Hume, 1711–1776, Scotch philosopher and historian.

His philosophical writings (among which his 'Treatise of Human Nature' is now a classic) stimulated the investigations of Adam Smith, Immanuel Kant, and others, and may thus be said to have given the impetus to the new turn of speculative philosophy in the domain of modern thought in Europe.

His 'History of England' has long been considered the standard history of England.

Adam Smith, 1723–1790, Scotch political economist and philosophical writer.

In his '*Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*' he laid the foundation of the science of political economy, and first cleared the air on such questions as labour and capital, the true meaning of wealth, the State regulation of industry, and similar problems.

Influence of English on German literature in the eighteenth century.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, while England and France stood in the foreground of European intellectual life, German literature was insignificant. It was not till about the middle of the century that Germany made vast strides forwards, and at the end of the century, when the French revolution was destroying the results of generations of Latin culture, German philosophy and German literature held the leading position in Europe. This latter period — the period of national originality — is — in the German literature of the 18th century — preceded by a period of imitation: — imitation of French (Gottsched, of Leipzig, *d.* 1766) — and more especially of English models (Bodmer, *d.* 1783, and Breitinger, *d.* 1776, both of Zürich).

"Under the influence of the English nature-poets, Klopstock created the German lyric; under that of Richardson and Fielding, Gellert and Wieland laid the basis of the novel; while in the school of English thinkers and dramatists Lessing became the master-critic of his time, and the pioneer of the modern drama." On the *Percy Reliques* Bürger modelled his ballad-poetry; while a master-thinker like Hume was of inferior importance only to Kant.

The Age of Wordsworth, Byron, and Scott.

The period embracing the end of the eighteenth century and the first thirty years of the nineteenth is marked by the genius of three writers who all of them had an enormous influence, but only one of whom can be ranked as a great prose-writer: —

Wordsworth¹⁾, the great reformer of outworn poetic manner, who to the conventional artificial and barren diction — which had become to be the indispensable attire and uniform of poetry — substituted a simpler and more natural phraseology;

Byron, the supreme genius of subjective poetry, the great exponent of independence and individualism, 'the grand Napoleon in the realms of rime';

and Scott who, as a novelist, is the creator of a new genre in literature, 'the historical novel', in which he blended historical fact with *romantic* fancy.

Sir Walter Scott (1771—1832) is the great reviver of a new interest in the Middle Ages, and in the ballad poetry and folksong in England, author of the 'Waverley Novels'.

The Waverley Novels, which are 29 in number, may be classified into six groups: Novels of Norman Feudalism — of Continental Warfare — The Tudor Novels — The Stuart Novels — the non-descript 'Pirate', — and the novel of modern society 'St. Ronan's Well'.

Chief Novels: 'Kenilworth', 'The Abbot', 'The Talisman', 'Ivanhoe', 'The Heart of Midlothian', 'The Bride of Lammermore'.

The Waverley Novels are so called because the first of this long series of similar (historical) novels was named 'Waverley' (1814).

As an historian Scott is chiefly known by his '*Tales of a Grandfather*', in which he tried to adapt the history of Scotland to the mind of children, the book being originally written for Scott's own grandson.

Jeremy Bentham, 1748—1832, philosopher, exercised — through his numerous writings and his many disciples — a great influence on jurisprudence and ethics.

In the history of ethics he stands out as one of the ablest champions of utilitarianism, Bentham being the celebrated advocate of 'the greatest happiness of the greatest number'.

"To Aristotle Ethics were a part of Politics, because a man could only be properly considered as a member of a community, and his happiness was a consequence of the happiness of the community to which he belonged. To Bentham, on the contrary, the individual is the chief consideration; to him "the community is a fictitious *body*, composed of the individual persons who are considered as constituting as it were its *members*. The interest of the community then is what? — the sum of the interests of the several members who compose it." In

¹⁾ William Wordsworth is by some — English and American — critics regarded as the third poet in English literature, after Shakespeare and Milton, whose places are unassailable. Other candidates for the third place are Chaucer and Spenser.

short, to the ancient philosopher the individual was nothing more than a member of the community; to the modern the community was nothing more than an assembly of individualism."

Thomas De Quincey, 1785—1859, man of letters, essayist; author of 'Confessions of an Opium-Eater'.

While a student at Oxford, De Quincey contracted the habit of opium-eating, which was only overcome after a protracted struggle many years after. — In his 'Recollections of the Lakes and the Lake Poets' he tells us of Coleridge, Southey, and Wordsworth, with whom he had become intimate, which had induced him to live at Grasmere in the Lake District. He lived there eleven years (1808—1819), having taken his abode in Wordsworth's cottage. —

De Quincey is an artist in prose; his style, which is elaborate and passionate in most of his writings, is somewhat influenced by the German philosopher and satirist Jean Paul Friedrich Richter (1763—1825), and by the English prose style of the seventeenth century, which he aimed at reviving.

The Victorian Era, 1837—1901: The Age of Carlyle, Ruskin, Tennyson.

Only some very few of the great many eminent writers can be mentioned here.

First of all two nobly inspired and wise men, the prophets of their age, and of many ages to come: Thomas Carlyle and John Ruskin.

Thomas Carlyle, 1795—1881, essayist and historian; the most remarkable prose writer of the nineteenth century and for a long time the acknowledged head of English letters (as Dr. Samuel Johnson was in the 18th century), — like Socrates a moral teacher.

The study of German, of which he had acquired a knowledge since 1819, powerfully affected his life and work. His German studies brought him into contact with a literature which seemed to reveal to him 'a new heavens and a new earth'. He became an enthusiast student of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter (1763—1825), the great Germany humorist. His works give evidence of his absorption of the ideal philosophy of Johann Gottlieb Fichte (1762—1814), and above all he came under the spell of Goethe (1749—1832), whose *Wilhelm Meister* he translated in 1824. These studies did more than colour Carlyle's thought and help to produce the peculiar mannerism and eccentricity of his style.

Carlyle has been more than a great writer: above all he has been a spiritual force, quickening and invigorating the moral and religious life in England. It was not simply as the writer of history, biography, or pamphlet, but as a prophet — the "Chelsea Seer", a 'spiritual volcano' — that he exercised so potent an influence.

"It is admirable in Carlyle" — says Goethe as early as 1827 in speaking to Eckermann — 'that in his judgments of our German authors he has especially in view the mental and moral core as that which is really influential. Carlyle is a moral force of great importance; there is in him much of the future, and we cannot foresee what he will produce and effect.'

"To the young, to the generous, to every one who took life seriously, who wished to make an honourable use of it, and could not be content with making money, his words were like morning réveillée." [Froude].

Chief *historical* works: 'The French Revolution', — 'Oliver Cromwell's Letters and Speeches, with Elucidations, and a connecting Narrative', — 'History of Frederick II. of Prussia'.

Chief *philosophical* work: 'Sartor Resartus', a kind of philosophical romance. ['Sartor resartus', means 'the Tailor Repatched'; — 'the Tailor patched' is the title of an old Scottish ballad].

Chief *social* and *political* work: 'Past and Present'.

Other chief works: 'Heroes and Hero-Worship', originally a series of lectures, afterwards (in 1841) published in book form.

Carlyle's view of history is what is known as the 'Great Man Theory', by which is meant that biography is the foundation of history, and that all great causes and great changes in human conditions have their centre and origin in one great man. 'Carlyle denounced as a deadly fallacy the fundamental principle of popular government that a people can only be governed by its own consent. Government by popular suffrage, he declared, merely meant that Judas Iscariot was as good a man as Paul of Tarsus'.

Quotation: The universe is but one vast symbol of God.

John Ruskin, 1819–1900, essayist, art critic, and social reformer; a priest and revealer of beauty; — like Carlyle a preacher and prophet to his generation.

Chief works, a) on questions of *artistic* reform: 'Modern Painters', 'Seven Lamps of Architecture', 'Stones of Venice', — b) on questions of *social* and *ethical* reform: 'Crown of Wild Olive', 'Fors Clavigera', 'Sesame and Lilies'. —

His books include dozens of other titles on artistic, social, and economic subjects. His 'Præterita' is autobiographical.

The Seven 'Lamps' of Architecture are the seven ideas or principles that ought to guide architecture: how can the seven ideas of Sacrifice, Truth, Power, Beauty, Life, Memory, and Obedience be represented in stone? The book had considerable influence in encouraging the Gothic revival of the time (1849).

'Fors Clavigera' is a series of lay sermons addressed [1871–1884] in monthly letters 'to the workmen and labourers of Great Britain' and intended to elevate their mental cast and habits of morality. As to the title, which has something of an oracular ambiguity, it seems as if Ruskin himself wished to leave the reader to choose from among the following three interpretations: — Fors, i. e. the Goddess of Destiny, as the bearer of — either 1. the key (*clavis*) necessary for opening the gate of Truth — or 2. the club (*clava*) necessary to fight and crush Evil — or 3. the rudder (*clavus*) necessary to govern the right course of life.

Quotations: Life without work is sinful; but work without art is brutal. — Food can only be got out of the ground, and happiness out of honesty.

Philosophers.

John Stuart Mill, 1806–1873 political economist and philosopher. Among his more important works are: 'System of Logic' — 'Political Economy' — 'Essays on Liberty' — 'Utilitarianism'.

Herbert Spencer, 1820–1903, philosopher. (See below: Huxley). Among his works are: 'Education', — 'First Principles', — 'Principles of Biology'; — 'Data of Ethics', — 'Principles of Sociology'.

Scientific Writers:

John Tyndall, 1820–1893, natural philosopher, an Irishman; he studied at Marburg (1848–1850) under Bunsen, the great physicist, to whom, with Kirchhoff, mankind chiefly owes the vast extension of our knowledge obtained through the spectroscope. Chief Work: 'Heat considered as a Mode of Motion'. — Other noteworthy books: 'The Glaciers of the Alps', 'On Sound', 'Nine Lectures on Light'.

Thomas Henry Huxley, 1825–1895, man of science (biologist). With Darwin (1809–1882), Tyndall, and Herbert Spencer he brought about the general acceptance of the doctrine of evolution. — Among his works are: 'Man's Place in Nature', 'Science and Culture', 'Evolution and Ethics'.

Historians.

Thomas Babington Macaulay, 1800—1859, essayist and historian; author of a 'History of England from the accession of James II.' (of which only the first two volumes appeared).

His fame rests more on his historical essays, his unsurpassed political speeches, and his 'Lays of Ancient Rome' (poems which are splendid modern tributes to the greatness and virtues of the Roman people).

His essays, covering a great range of subjects, brought history and literature to the people through the pages of the magazines: — India came home to them in his *Lord Clive* and *Warren Hastings* — Italy in his *Macchiavelly* — England in his *Chatham* — literature in his *Milton* and his *Johnson*.

Macaulay's style, somewhat artificial, is the perfection of clearness. [See Seeley].

James Anthony Froude, 1818—1894, historian and man of letters.

As a writer of English prose Froude has few equals in the nineteenth century. — Chief works: 'History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada' — 'Oceana, or England and her Colonies'.

Edward Augustus Freeman, 1823—1892, historian.

Chief work: 'History of the Norman Conquest'.

Sir John Seeley, 1834—1895, historian and essayist. — Chief publications: 'The Life and Times of Stein', and 'The Expansion of England' (originally a series of lectures).

In his lectures Seeley adopted the view that 'history is past politics, and politics present history'. — Seeley forms a striking contrast to men like Macaulay, Swinburne, Kipling, and other jingoes who speak of 'the men of English breed' as 'the hereditary nobility of mankind', who, according to their ideas, *alone* are the true champions of civilization being destined by Providence to rule the seas and the world.

John Richard Green, 1837—1883, author of a 'Short History of England'.

His 'Short History', though not without inaccuracy, is the most popular history since that of Macaulay. What Macaulay did for one period of English History, Green did for it as a whole.

William E. H. Lecky, 1838—1903, historian.

Among his numerous works are: 'History of European Morals', 'A History of England in the Eighteenth Century'. The latter work is not a history in the strict chronological form, but rather a philosophical study of events and their causes, relieved by an admirable series of finished historical portraits.

Novelists.

William Makepeace Thackeray, 1811—1863, novelist (humorist and satirist). Chief novels: 'Vanity Fair', and 'Henry Esmond' (one of the greatest historical novels in English fiction).

Noteworthy are besides his 'Yellowplush Correspondence', the 'Roundabout Papers' (a collection of essays), and his 'Lectures on the English Humorists'. — The 'Yellowplush Correspondence' (or 'The Memoirs of Mr. C. J. Yellowplush') is a series of humorous sketches, written in the character of a West-End footman, and contributed to Frazer's magazine.

Thackeray's style is exceptionally finished and charming, and places him among the greatest prose masters of English fiction. In 'Vanity Fair' (as indeed in most of Thackeray's writings) under the satiric and humorous delineation of a world of hollowness and pretence runs the strong current of a deep and serious moral purpose. [See Dickens and Stevenson].

Quotation: The world is a looking-glass, and gives back to every man the reflection of his own face.

Charles Dickens, 1812—1870, one of the greatest novelists and humorists of the world.

The best-known of his early original works are the '*Sketches by Boz*', which contain portrayals of London life.

In adopting the pseudonym 'Boz' Dickens called himself after his younger brother, whom — in remembrance of Moses, one of the characters in Oliver Goldsmith's 'Vicar of Wakefield', of whom Dickens was very fond — he had playfully nicknamed Moses. Boz is the childish lisp of this pet-name: his little sister could not pronounce Moses, but said Boz instead. Dickens took this form of the family pet-name as his pen-name.

His chief novels are: 'David Copperfield' (the most autobiographical of the novels), 'Martin Chuzzlewit', 'The Pickwick Papers', 'Nicholas Nickleby' — and the Christmas stories: 'The Christmas Carol' and 'The Cricket on the Hearth'. — Quite different from his usual manner is his powerful 'Tale of two Cities' (i. e. London and Paris at the time of the French revolution).

In his representations of London society Dickens depicts the lower classes rather than the upper. (The upper classes are admirably well pictured by Thackeray). Through his portrayal of the understrata of society there runs a strong moral purpose and a healthy moral tone.

Charles Kingsley, 1819—1875, English clergyman, novelist, and miscellaneous writer.

His chief novels are: 'Yeast, a Problem', 'Alton Locke, Tailor and Poet', 'Hypatia', — and the historical romances: 'Westward Ho' and 'Hereward the Dane'.

Kingsley's whole life was one of strenuous endeavour to better and ennoble mankind, particularly the toiling masses in town and country.

Kingsley was also a poet; his lyrics 'The Three Fishers' and 'The Sands of Dee' are among the best known in the language.

Quotation: Every man has his gift, and the tools go to him that can use them.

George Eliot, 1819—1880, stands easily in the front rank of English novelists; one of the most influential and distinctly representative writers of the nineteenth century.

George Eliot is the pen-name of Mary Ann Evans, afterwards Mrs. Cross¹). George Eliot is the greatest lady novelist of England; she made a definite study of the 'science of character', and became the founder of the 'psychological novel'.

Her chief novels are: 'Adam Bede' — 'The Mill on the Floss' — 'Silas Marner' — 'Romola' (a Florentine historical novel) — 'Middlemarch'.

Quotation: Our words have wings, but fly not where we would.

¹) Before marrying Mr. Cross, a New York banker, (in 1880), Miss Evans had formed a lifelong union (1854—1878) without legal form with George Henry Lewes (1817—1878), the famous author of the 'Life of Goethe', a standard book.

Robert Louis Stevenson, 1850—1894, Scotch essayist and novelist.

Stevenson's work has been to lead an emphatic reaction against the psychological novel produced by George Eliot. 'It is one thing', he has said, 'to remark and to dissect with the most cutting logic the complications of life, and of the human spirit; it is quite another to embody character, thought, or emotion, in some act or attitude that shall be remarkably striking to the mind's eye. This is the highest and hardest thing to do in words, the thing which, once accomplished, equally delights the schoolboy and the sage; the first is literature, but the second is something besides, for it is likewise art'. —

"Stevenson created situations rather than characters, but when he set about drawing a character, he drew with the firm and steady hand of a master" (McCarthy).

As to his style, he has himself told how 'all through my boyhood and youth I was known and pointed at for the pattern of an idler; and yet I was always busy on my own private end, which was to learn to write. I always kept two books in my pocket, one to read and one to write in'. — He wrote descriptions of what he saw; he composed dialogues as he walked; he played 'the sedulous ape', as he terms it, to the styles of Wordsworth, Defoe, Hawthorne, Ruskin, and various others; and that, 'like it or not', declares he, 'is the way to learn to write; and it was so, if one could trace it out, that all men have learned'.

"Stevenson", says McCarthy in his 'History of Our Own Times' [completed 1905], „was undoubtedly one of the greatest English writers during the later part of the nineteenth century; he is the most popular novelist after Dickens, Thackeray, and George Eliot.

Chief novels: 'Treasure Island' — 'Kidnapped' — and (his only historical novel:) 'The Master of Ballantrae'.

Much known also are his 'Travels with a Donkey in the Cevennes', — the grotesque 'New Arabian Nights', — his essays¹⁾: 'Virginibus Puerisque' and 'Memories and Portraits' — and the 'Vailima Letters' (so called after his Vailima property, which he had purchased in Samoa, whither he had gone in search of health).

'Nothing' — says one of Stevenson's biographers — 'betrays the personality of a man more clearly than his prayers, and the following petition that Stevenson composed for the use of his house-hold at Vailima, bears the stamp of its author.'

"At Morning. The day returns and brings us the petty round of irritating concerns and duties. Help us to play the man, help us to perform them with laughter and kind faces, let cheerfulness abound with industry. Give us to go blithely on our business all this day, bring us to our resting beds weary and content and undishonoured, and grant us in the end the gift of sleep."

¹⁾ Stevenson's essays — like those of Charles Lamb, of Thackeray, and others — are what is called 'personal' essays. The Personal Essay is a peculiar form of literature, entirely different from critical essays — like those of Matthew Arnold — and from purely reflective essays — like those of Bacon. "It is a species of writing somewhat akin to autobiography or firelight conversation; where the writer takes the reader entirely into his confidence, and chats pleasantly with him on topics that may be as widely apart as the immortality of the soul and the proper colour of a necktie. The first and supreme master of this manner of writing was Montaigne, who belongs into the first rank of the world's greatest writers of prose."

Another Prose Writer.

Matthew Arnold, 1822—1888, essayist, literary critic, and poet.

Matthew Arnold occupies a high place among the foremost prose writers of his time. His style is in marked contrast to the dithyrambic eloquence of Carlyle, or to Ruskin's pure and radiant colouring. It is a quiet style, restrained, clear, discriminating, incisive. His writings are models of pure harmonious English.

Matthew Arnold is the son of Dr. Thomas Arnold (1795—1842), the great headmaster of Rugby (1828—1842).

Chief prose works: 'Essays in Criticism', — 'The Function of Criticism at the Present Time', — 'Culture and Anarchy', — 'Discourses on America'.

His poetical works include 'Sohrab and Rustum', a tragical episode, in Persian history, of the slaying of the son by the father, resembling in some points the incidents told in the Old High German lay of Hildebrand and Hadubrand (of about A. D. 800).

American Prose Writers.

We only mention eleven writers: — three rather important authors — Irving, Emerson, Hawthorne, — and eight others, also of considerable distinction:

a) one of the 18th century: Benjamin Franklin — b) six dead authors of the 19th: Cooper, Prescott, Bancroft, Motley, Taylor, Bret Harte — c) one living author: Theodore Roosevelt.

Washington Irving, 1783—1859, American miscellaneous writer.

Among his best-known works are: 'The History of New York, by Diedrich Knickerbrocker', 'The Sketch Book', 'Life of Columbus', 'The Alhambra', etc.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803—1882, eminent American essayist, lecturer, and poet — 'the most potent intellectual force of the New World' — 'the American Carlyle'.

Emerson is the chief representative of the New England Transcendentalism. Transcendentalism, from a philosophical point of view, was the application of idealism to nature and the affairs of life. Emerson was the chief promoter of a reaction from narrow-minded Puritan austerity, which had seen in man a vile creature whose instincts for beauty and pleasure were proofs of his depravity. Emerson's idealism, which was greatly influenced by Carlyle and the new German philosophy, aimed to dignify man. His writings are all pervaded by an optimistic view of life and by strong ethical feeling.

As to his place in literature, J. R. Lowell, the American poet and man of letters (1819—1891), says: 'We were still socially and intellectually moored to English thought till Emerson cut the cable and gave us a chance at the dangers and glories of blue waters'.

Chief works: 'Essays' — 'Representative Men'.

'Representative Men' = originally a series of lectures treating of the 'uses of great men' (Plato: or, the Philosopher — Swedenborg: or, the Mystic — Montaigne: or, the Sceptic — Shakespeare: or, the Poet — Napoleon: or, the Man of the World — Goethe: or, the Writer).

Quotation: Life is not so short but that there is always time for courtesy.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804—1864, American story-writer, the foremost literary artist of the American genius.

His most famous novel is 'The Scarlet-Letter'; his literary speciality is 'the short story', of which he wrote a great number, inimitable in style and full of weird imagination.

'I consider Poe¹⁾, Hawthorne, and Emerson the greatest writers of American literature.' Theodore Roosevelt.

Benjamin Franklin, 1706—1790, American statesman and miscellaneous writer; one of the Committee of Five chosen by Congress to draw up the Declaration of Independence (1775), — the inventor of the lightning-conductor.

Chief work: his 'Autobiography'. — Under the nom de plume (pen-name, assumed name, pseudonym) 'Poor Richard' Franklin issued (from 1732—1757) a series of almanacs: 'Poor Richard's Almanac'.

The characteristic feature of 'Poor Richard's Almanac' was its crisp sayings or maxims full of homely wisdom, the duty of industry, and the making of money. For instance:

'One to-day is worth two to-morrows' — 'God helps them that help themselves' — 'Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee' — 'Dost thou love life, then do not squander time, for that is the stuff life is made of' — 'Early to bed and early to rise Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise' — 'Three removes are as bad as a fire' — 'He that goes a-borrowing goes a-sorrowing'.

James Fenimore Cooper, 1789—1851, American novelist, — 'the Romancer of the American Indian life, the Homer of the desperate stand the Redskins made against the inroads of the hated Palefaces'.

Author of the 'Leather-Stocking Tales', among the most popular of which are 'The Last of the Mohicans', 'The Pathfinder', 'The Deerslayer'.

William Hickling Prescott, 1796—1859, American historian.

Chief work: 'History of the Conquest of Peru'.

George Bancroft, 1800—1891, American historian.

Author of 'History of the United States'.

John Lothrop Motley, 1814—1877, American historian.

Chief work: 'Rise of the Dutch Republic'.

Bayard Taylor, 1825—1878, 'the great American traveller', eminent as a novelist, a newspaper man, a literary critic, a poet and a translator, has had few superiors as a writer of books of travel.

Taylor was deeply read in German literature. He made a careful study of Goethe, and his translation of Goethe's Faust is said to be the finest English translation. Among his books of travel those referring to Thuringia (*A Home in the Thuringian Forest*, *Weimar and its Dead*, etc.) are of particular interest to German readers.

¹⁾ Edgar Allan Poe, 1809—1849, is both poet and prose writer. No other American author is more difficult to judge than Poe, whether as a man or as a writer. His fame as a prose writer rests on his tales of terror and mystery. To German readers he is best known by 'The Raven', the grotesque, pathetic, tragic poem of despair.

Francis Bret **Harte**, 1839—1902, novelist, one of the most popular of American authors; (like Hawthorne) a brilliant representative of the 'Short Story' writers and a fine portrayer of the rough mining life in California.

The most widely known of his numerous stories is 'The Luck of Roaring Camp.'

Theodore **Roosevelt**¹⁾, (born 1858, still living), American miscellaneous writer and man of affairs (late President of the United States).

Among his numerous writings may be mentioned: 'The Naval War of 1812' — 'Hunting Trips of a Ranchman' — 'Essays on Practical Politics' — 'American Ideals and other Essays'.

¹⁾ An eminent American critic writing in Volume 4000 of the Tauchnitz Edition (in 1909) calls Roosevelt 'after Washington and Lincoln the third among our sons of light'. Theodore Roosevelt is indeed a typical representative of American idealism, in which a lofty and truly ethical conception of life combines itself with practical common sense and untiring pluck and energy. Roosevelt is known as a huntsman, who has done much big game shooting in the Bad Lands of Dakota and of Montana, where, in 1885, he had started a ranch on the banks of the Little Missouri, and where, as the gallant colonel of the 'Rough Riders', he has done much for the winning of the West. As a writer Roosevelt distinguished himself when scarcely out of college, and now ranks foremost among contemporary essayists and is the most conspicuous of public orators. As a statesman he is distinguished by his unwearying efforts to elevate the moral and political strength of his country and to promote the cause of international amity.

The Monroe Doctrine. "Just seventy-eight years have passed since President Monroe in his Annual Message [of 1823, Dec. 2] announced that "*The American continents are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power*". In other words, the Monroe Doctrine is a declaration that there must be no territorial aggrandizement by any non-American power at the expense of any American power on American soil. It is in no wise intended as hostile to any nation in the Old World. Still less is it intended to give cover to any aggression by one New World power at the expense of any other...

This doctrine has nothing to do with the commercial relations of any American power, save that it in truth allows each of them to form such as it desires. In other words, it is really a guaranty of the commercial independence of the two Americas. We do not ask under this doctrine for any exclusive commercial dealings with any other American state. We do not guarantee any state against punishment if it misconducts itself, provided that punishment does not take the form of the acquisition of territory by any non-American power...

We do not wish to see any Old World military power grow up on this continent, or to be compelled to become a military power ourselves. The peoples of the Americas can prosper best if left to work out their own salvation in their own way."

From 'Message communicated to the two Houses of Congress at the beginning of the First Session of the Fifty-seventh Congress'.
White House, December 3, 1901.

Review of men and works of literary fame mentioned in the book, being at the same time a

Chronological Table

of the most significant facts of English Literature.

OLD ENGLISH PERIOD, 700 (449)—1100.

1. *Beowulf*, the first English epic (the oldest epic in any Germanic language) — [The Venerable Bede (Bæda): *Historia Ecclesiastica* 731] — King Ælfred the Great (871—901) — Anglo-Saxon Version of the Bible, about 1000 A. D.

MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD, 1100 – 1500.

2. Wyclif: *Translation of the Bible* 1388 — Chaucer: *The Canterbury Tales* 1390 — Caxton.

Richard III., the last king of the House of York (the White Rose), slain at Bosworth, 1485: Accession of Henry VII., the first Tudor king.

MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD, 1500 till now.

3. Transition Period: *The Revival of Learning*, 1470—1558.

[Caxton] — William Tyndale: *Translation of the Bible* (1525—1531) — Sir Thomas More: *Utopia* [Latin edition 1516; English Translation 1557].

4. Elizabethan Period, 1558—1625.

1558—1603 Queen Elizabeth, the last of the Tudor line; 1603—1625 James I., son of Mary, Queen of Scots, first king of the House of Stuart.

[John Knox, Scottish reformer and historian, 1505—1572] — Edmund Spenser: *the Fairy Queen* 1590, 1596 — Sir Walter Raleigh — John Lyly: *Euphues* 1580 — Francis Bacon: *Essays* 1597, 1625 — Marlowe, *Dr. Faustus* 1589 — Shakespeare [1564—1616]: *Sonnets* 1609; *Plays* 1589—1613 [First Folio 1623: Comedies, Histories, Tragedies] — Ben Jonson — King James's Bible: *Authorized Version* 1611.

5. Civil War Period, 1625—1700.

1625—1649 Charles I.; 1649—1660 The Commonwealth; 1660 The Restoration: the House of Stuart restored: Charles II., James II.; 1688 Second English Revolution; 1689 William of Orange and Mary II. (Stuart).

Milton: *Paradise Lost* 1667 — Bunyan: *the Pilgrim's Progress* 1678, 1684 — John Dryden — John Locke: *Essay on Human Understanding* 1690.

6. Eighteenth Century.

Poets: Pope: *Essay on Criticism* 1711, translation of *Homer* 1715—1726, *Essay on Man* 1734 — Thomson: *The Seasons* 1730 — [Bishop Percy]: *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry* 1765 — Cowper: *The Task* 1785 — James Macpherson: *Ossian* 1760 — Robert Burns: *Poems* 1786.

Prose Satirist: Swift: *Gulliver's Travels* 1726.

Essayists: Steele and Addison: *The Periodicals* (*The Tatler* 1709 — *The Spectator* 1711) — Dr. Samuel Johnson: *The Periodicals* (*The Rambler* 1750 — *The Idler* 1758), *Dictionary* 1755.

Novelists: Defoe: *Robinson Crusoe* 1720 — Richardson — Fielding — Sterne — Smollet — Oliver Goldsmith: *Vicar of Wakefield* 1766.

Historians: Hume — Gibbon.

Philosopher: Hume.

National Economist: Adam Smith.

7. The Age of Wordsworth, Byron, and Scott, 1798—1831.

The three Lake Poets: Wordsworth: *Lyrical Ballads* 1798 — Coleridge — Southey: [*Life of Nelson*] 1813.

Other Poets: Sir Walter Scott: *Lay of the Last Minstrel* 1805, *Marmion* 1808, *The Lady of the Lake* 1810; — *The Waverley Novels* 1814—1829; — *Tales of a Grandfather* 1828—1830.

Thomas Moore: *National Airs* 1815, *Lalla Rookh* 1817; *Life of Byron* 1830 — Lord Byron: *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* 1812, 1816, 1817; *Manfred* 1817 — Keats.

Prose Writers: Bentham (writer on jurisprudence, ethics, and political economy) — Charles Lamb, essayist — De Quincey, essayist and miscellaneous writer.

8. The Victorian Age, 1837—1901.

Poets: Macaulay — Tennyson — Browning — Kingsley — Matthew Arnold — Rossetti — William Morris — Swinburne.

Essayists: Carlyle — Macaulay — Thackeray — Ruskin — Matthew Arnold — Stevenson.

Historians: Carlyle — Macaulay — Froude — Freeman — M'Carthy (b. 1830) — Seeley — Green — Lecky.

Philosophers and Scientists: John Stuart Mill — Darwin, Tyndall, Huxley — Herbert Spencer.

Novelists: Thackeray — Dickens — Kingsley — George Eliot — William Wilkie Collins: *The Woman in White* 1860 — Stevenson.

Miscellaneous Writer: G. H. Lewes: *Life of Goethe* 1859.

9. Twentieth Century Writers.

H. J. Newbolt: *Admirals All* 1897, *The Island Race* 1898 — H. G. Wells: *The Food of the Gods* 1904.

American Authors.

10. a) Eighteenth Century.

Benjamin Franklin: *Poor Richard's Almanac*, begun in 1733; *Autobiography* 1771—1789.

b) Nineteenth Century.

Washington Irving — Fenimore Cooper — Prescott — Bancroft — Emerson — Hawthorne — Longfellow — Poe — Holmes — Motley — Lowell — Taylor — Bret Harte.

c) Twentieth Century.

Theodore Roosevelt.

Australia.

11. Henry Kendall, 1842—1882, poet.

Treasures hidden in books, how to fit yourself for them: When you come to a good book, you must ask yourself, 'Am I inclined to work as an Australian miner would? Are my pickaxes and shovels in good order, and am I in good trim myself, my sleeves well up to the elbow, and my breath good, and my temper?' . . .

. . . The metal you are in search of being the author's mind or meaning, his words are as the rock which you have to crush and smelt in order to get at it. But your pickaxes are your own care, wit, and learning; your smelting furnace is your own thoughtful soul. Do not hope to get at any good author's meaning without those tools and that fire; often you will need sharpest, finest chiselling, and patientest fusing, before you can gather one grain of the metal.

John Ruskin [1819—1900], 'Sesame and Lilies' [1865].

PROSE PASSAGES.

Passages from the Holy Bible: Old Testament. Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed. *Genesis IX, 6.* — The Lord gave, and the Lord hath taken away; blessed be the name of the Lord. *Job I, 21.* — The days of our years are threescore years and ten; and if by reason of strength they be fourscore years, yet is their strength labour and sorrow; for it is soon cut off, and we fly away. *Psalms XC, 10.* — He that toucheth pitch shall be defiled therewith. *Ecclesiasticus XIII, 1.*

The ten Commandments (*Exodus XX, 2–17; Deuteronomy V, 6, 21*). I am the Lord thy God; thou shalt have no other gods before me. Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain. Remember the sabbath-day to keep it holy. Honour thy father and thy mother: that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee. Thou shalt not kill. Thou shalt not commit adultery. Thou shalt not steal. Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbour. Thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's house, thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's wife, nor his man-servant, nor his maid-servant, nor his ox, nor his ass, nor any thing that is his.

New Testament. But when thou doest alms, let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth. *Matthew VI, 3.* — Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap. *Galatians VI, 7.*

The Lord's Prayer (*Matthew VI, 9; Luke XI, 2*). Our Father, which art in heaven, Hallowed be thy Name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth, as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread. And forgive us our trespasses, As we forgive them that trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation; But deliver us from evil: For thine is the kingdom, The power, and the glory, For ever and ever. Amen.

Grace before Meals (20,22). For what we are going to receive, the Lord make us truly thankful!

Grace after Meals (21,4). For what we have received, the Lord's name be praised!

Maxims, Aphorisms, Golden Rules, Household Words. Be kind and be gentle to those who are old; For kindness is better and dearer than gold. — A man without love of truth is lost to all sense of honour and virtue. — Lying is the meanest of all vices. — He only deserves the name of man who performs the duties of humanity. — Bad men excuse their faults, good men will leave them. — Expect to be respected only as long as you deserve it. — Cultivate the habit of perseverance; success is dependent on it. — Success in your studies will be determined, not by the time you devote to them, but by the intensity of your attention. — True politeness has its seat in the heart rather than in the head. — He that commends a wicked action, is equally wicked with him that commits it. — Wise men change their minds, fools never.

Proverbs. Man proposes and God disposes. — Be slow to promise, but quick to perform. — Look before you leap. — Honesty is the best policy. — Friends are plenty when the purse is full. — A bad workman always blames his tools. — Better late than never. — A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. — There are more flies caught with honey than vinegar. — A cat in gloves catches no mice. — Every man is the architect of his own fortune. — Do not put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day. — Procrastination is the thief of time. — Mustard after meat is worth no more than a doctor after death. — Nature has given us two ears, two eyes, and but one tongue. — When clouds are seen, wise men put on their cloaks. — All is not gold that glitters. — Every shoe fits not every foot. — New brooms sweep clean. — The smaller the drink, the cooler the blood, and the clearer the head — Tell not all you know; believe not all you hear; spend not all you have; do not all you can. — Better to be alone than in bad company. — Empty vessels make most sound. — A young man idle, on old man needy. — The greatest conqueror is he who conquers himself. — Of two evils choose the less. — Evil communications corrupt good manners. — He who pays his debts, makes money. — He who would catch fish, must not mind getting wet. — Those who sing before breakfast, will cry before night. — He who begins badly, ends badly. — Still waters run deep. — There is no rule without an exception. — Time is money. — All's well that ends well.

Riddles and Puzzles. It has been said that the guessing of riddles is to the mind what running, leaping, and wrestling are to the body. Answering riddles is an excellent mental exercise which gives the mind alertness and quickness of thought and a facility for viewing a problem in every possible light. I hope that if you are asked the following riddles, you will easily guess the answers; they are very easy and cannot give you trouble. Can you guess them? Those who are not clever at guessing the answers, will find some of them in the footnote below.

1. Why is the letter A like twelve o'clock¹⁾? — 2. Fifty-four between O and E Gives the name of a well-known tree. — 3. What is that wick a gentleman has not, can never have, and yet can give to a lady? — 4. What is that word the first two letters of which may apply to any man, the first three to any woman, the first four only to a brave man, and the whole word to a brave woman? — 5. Which is the longest word in the English language? — 6. What English word becomes shorter, if you add a syllable to it? — 7. What coin can you double in value by deducting its half? — 8. Which travels at greater speed, heat or cold? — 9. What is the beginning of eternity, the end of time and space, the beginning of every end, and the end of every race? — 10. Which is the merriest letter in the alphabet?

¹⁾ A halfpenny. Heat, because you can catch cold. Smiles; because there is a mile between the first and the last letter. Because it is in the middle of 'day'. 'U', because it is always in fun. A husband. Short.

¶. Das Zeichen ¶ . . bedeutet: Wiederholung (im Satz-Zusammenhange) und Rückübersehung der hierhergehörigen Belegstelle auf Seite . . Repeat (in a complete sentence) and retranslate the example (illustrating this rule) occurring on page . . , line . . .

G r a m m a t i k.

Einleitung.

§ 1. Die Laute der englischen Sprache zerfallen wie im Deutschen in **stimmhafte** (weiche) und **stimmlose** (harte); vgl. 6, 20—7, 26.

§ 2. Stimmhaft sind alle Vokale und die Konsonanten *b, d, g, v, ŷ, ð, z, ʒ, j, l, r, m, n, ŋ*; stimmlos sind die Konsonanten *p, t, k, f, þ, s, ʃ, h*.

Die stimmhaften Konsonanten bleiben auch im Auslaute weich (7, 12); *l, m, n, v* werden im Auslaute länger angehalten als im Deutschen (7, 13). — Ist der Endkonsonant stimmhaft und ist die Endsilbe betont, so wird nicht bloß er, sondern auch der ihm vorausgehende kurze Vokal oder der ihm vorausgehende Konsonant etwas gedehnt (7, 17):

can	=	kæ̃n	mit gedehntem kurzem offenem æ
head	=	heḏ	" " " " e
hid	=	hiḏ	" " " " i
cub	=	kʊḃ	" " " " u
was	=	ʷɔ̃z	" " " " ɔ
good	=	guḏ	" " " " u.

Es besteht also ein Unterschied in der Lautung des kurzen æ in had und hat, bad und bat, des kurzen v in cub und cup, des kurzen i in hid und hit usw.; auch die Aussprache des t in build [= biḏl] und built [= biḏt], des n in ones [= ʷɔ̃nz] und once [= ʷɔ̃nz] ist etwas verschieden; vgl. 7, 21.

l als Schlußlaut (noble, call) und vor Konsonanten (milk, salt) wird mit velarer Hebung der Hinterzunge gebildet (= Hintergaumen-t 5, 27); vor Vokalen (nobler, calling) fehlt die velare Hebung (= dentales [genauer: alveolares] Vorderzungen-l 5, 25); vgl. § 49 Anm.; § 69 e, II. 3, 4.

ŷ und j werden auch als Halbvokale bezeichnet (6, 27—7, 2).

[Erklärung: velar: velum palatinum Gaumensegel, weicher Gaumen, soft palate; — palatal: der eigentliche Gaumen the palate proper oder the hard palate harter Gaumen; — guttural ist weniger bestimmt: teils = velar + palatal, teils nur = velar; — alveolar: die Alveole = Zahnhöhle; (engl. meist dafür: the [upper] gums Zahnfleisch, Zahndamm).

§ 3. Schreibung und Lautung (Buchstabe und Laut, Schriftzeichen und Aussprache) decken sich oft gar nicht.

Besonders auffällig ist der Unterschied zwischen Schreibung und Lautung in Wörtern wie lieutenant, Beauchamp, Cholmondeley, Congresbury, Llewellyn, Vaughan, Wemys, Wiveliscombe, Colquhoun, Marylebone, Holborn, Ludgate: *leſte'nənt, bi'tsəm, tšəmbli, kənz'bəri, lu'e'lin, vɔ̃n, ŷimz, ŷi'tzkəm, k'hūn, m'eri'bən, (mæ'r'ibən), hōu'bɔ̃rn, lɔ̃g't*.

Auffällig auch ist der Unterschied zwischen Schriftzeichen und Aussprache in den Buchstabenverbindungen augh und ough, von denen augh zwei, ough neun verschiedene Lautungen hat: — 1. = ōu in dough Teig, (al)though obgleich; — 2. = o (Abwächung von ōu: 12, 29) in thorough durchgängig, borough Marktflecken, fur-

lough Urlaub; — 3. = *āu* in bough Aft, plough Pflug, slough Sumpf, drought Dürre; — 4. = *ū* in through durch; — 5. = *ō* in bought, brought, thought, wrought, caught, taught, fraught (beſucht), daughter, usquebaugh (irifch-schottifcher Gewürzbranntwein); — 6. = *of* in trough Trog, cough Huften (auch *kōf*); — 7. = *āf* in draught Ziehen, Zug, Zeichnen, laugh lachen; — 8. = *of* in chough Dohle, clough Bergſchlucht, enough genug, rough rauh, slough Schlangenhaut, tough zähe; — 9. = *ok* in hough Hechſe, kniebug, shough gottiger Hund, lough See (in Irland; in Schottland = loch); — 10. *up* in hiccough Schluckauf (hickup).

Unter den Vokalen ſtellt — beifpielsweiſe — der Buchſtabe *a* — allein in betonter Silbe — ſieben verſchiedene Laute dar: 1. *ā*: last — 2. *ē*: lady — 3. *æ*: tram — 4. *ē*: Mary — 5. *ō*: water — 6. *o*: what — 7. *ē*: Thames, any, many, ate (eat) . . .

Nicht ſelten wird ein Doppellaut durch einen einfachen Buchſtaben, ein einfacher Laut durch ein doppeltes Schriftzeichen dargeſtellt: ſo (*ōu*) — lady (*ē*) — good (*ū*) — Connaught (*ō*) . . .

Nur ein Beiſpiel von den Konſonanten: die Buchſtabenverbindung *ch* hat fünf verſchiedene Lautungen: 1. meiſt = *tʃ*: speech, child, chief, chair, church, cherub . . . 2. = *ʃ* in einigen franzöſiſchen, noch heute als Fremdwörter empfundenen Wörtern: chemise, chaise, chandelier, machine . . . [Merke: Charley mit *tʃ* = Diminutiv von Charles, mit *ʃ* = Diminutiv von Charlotte]. — 3. = *k* nach *s*: school, scheme; (wie *tʃ* nur in eſchew vermeiden und eſcheat Heimfall, — in ache Schmerz, anchor Anker, pibroch ſchottifche Bergmuſik — und meiſt in griechiſchen Wörtern (chaos, character, chemistry, Christ, echo, epoch, mechanic, stomach Magen, chorus Chor, Michael (= *māikēl*) . . . 4. *dʒ*: Greenwich, Harwich (9, 27) . . sandwich . . . 5. *kū* in choir Chor.

Anm. In den griechiſchen mit archi- beginnenden Wörtern lautet *ch* wie *k* (architect); in denen mit arch- wie *tʃ* (archbishop uſw.), nur in archangel iſt *h* = *k*: *ār-kēindʒēl* Erzengel.

§ 4. Die vier Zifchlaute (sibilants, hissing sounds) ſind: *s*, *z*, *ʃ*, *ʒ*; vgl. 7, 4.

§ 5. Die engliſche Sprache iſt reich an Diphthongen. Die langen Vokale ſind in der heutigen Sprache faſt alle diphthongifiert. Auch die noch übrig gebliebenen einfachen langen Vokale neigen zur Diphthongifiierung. Diphthongiſchen Charakter haben nicht bloß die Laute *ē* (lady), *ā* (strike), *āu* (now), *ōu* (no), *ō* (Lloyd), ſondern auch *ī* (beef) und *ū* (rule). Siehe 4, 5; 5, 3.

Neben *ū* iſt häufig die feſte Lautverbindung *jū* (3. B. Stuart, useless, Europe, wo *j* einen halb vokalifchen, *i* ähnlichen Laut bezeichnet (6, 27—32; 8, 20).

Die Lautverbindung *jū* findet ſich nicht nach *r* (alſo auch nicht in to peruse durchleſen), nicht nach *dʒ* (June) und nicht nach *l* (blue). Doch ſprechen einige allude, allusion, illusion, illuminate, illumination, luminous u. a. mit *jū* ſtatt *ū*; wohl ſtets *jū* (nicht *ū*) hat prelude Vorſpiel.

Es gibt ſechs lange einfache Vokale: *ē*, *ā*, *ō* und die R-Vokale *ēr*, *ār*, *ōr*; doch wird der letztere (*ōr*) zuweilen zum Diphthong verbreitert (= *ōer*). — Auch *ē*, das nur vor *r* mit nachfolgendem Vokallaut ſteht (Mary, vary, various, fairy, dairy, parent . . .) wird zuweilen ſchon — ſtatt mit einfacher Länge — mit breiter diphthongiſcher Ausſprache gehört (was aber nicht als fein gilt): *Mēeri*.

§ 6. Da das urſprünglich gutturale Zäpfchen= ſeinen konſonantiſchen Charakter eingebüßt hat und durch Übergang in den unbeſtimmten Vokal *ə* vokalifch geworden iſt (5, 31—6, 19), ſo gibt es im Engliſchen zehn ſogenannte R-Vokale.

ēr (here), *ēr* (there), *ēr* (her), *ār* (far), *ār* (fire), *āur* (our), *ūr* (poor) neßt *jūr* (pure), *ōur* (lower), *ōr* (lord), *ōēr* (destroyer, employer).

Hierzu kommt in unbetonten Silben noch *r* (6, 14).

Der ursprünglich konsonantische Charakter dieses *r* tritt wieder hervor (d. h. das *r* wird als Zungenspitzen-*r*, also als Zahnlaut [dental], nicht als Gaumenlaut [guttural] gesprochen) vor einem Vokale

a) in Wörtern wie Mary; siehe § 5,

b) im Falle der Bindung (6, 6),

c) sobald das Wort um eine Silbe wächst: to err, to clear mit vokalischem *r*, aber erring, clearing, clearance, clearer mit konsonantischem *r*, — jedoch erred, cleared mit vokalischem *r*, weil -ed, dessen *e* stumm ist (29, 28), keine besondere Silbe bildet. Vgl. § 49 Anm., § 69e A. 3, 4.

Merke: iron Eisen hat vokalisches *r*: *ai'orn* (nicht aber Byron 10, 6).

§ 7. Die Vokale der unbetonten Silben (12, 7) sind Abschwächungen der betonten Vokale, die je nach dem Grade der Schnelligkeit oder der Art des Sprechens mehr oder minder deutlich ihrem entsprechenden betonten Vokale ähneln und bei flüchtiger Aussprache einen der vier Laute *æ*, *ɪ*, *ʊ*, *ə*¹⁾ darstellen, bei nachlässiger Aussprache ganz zu dem Laute *ə* herabsinken. So erscheint cheerful bei diktatmäßig deutlicher Aussprache als *tʃi'ərful*, bei gewöhnlicher Aussprache als *-ful*, bei flüchtigerer als *-fʌl*, und bei nachlässiger als *-fəl*. (Vgl. „hast nicht gesehn“ der nachlässigen Berliner Aussprache für „hast du ihn denn nicht gesehen?“ oder „türlich [‘tierlich]“ für „natürlich“.)

Vor affektiert nachlässiger oder gesucht flüchtiger Aussprache hat sich der Anfänger zu hüten. The English language sounds much better when properly pronounced; and foreigners are very apt to make mistakes in using contractions.

Anm. Die auf -ate auslautenden Wörter unterscheiden in der Aussprache das Verb (mit -*ei*-) vom Adjektiv (mit -*ə*- oder -*ə*-): to separate absondern, to intimate andeuten . . . (mit *ei*), aber separate getrennt, geschieden, intimate innig, vertraut . . . (mit *ə* oder *ə*); vgl. 54, 5.

Der Artikel. The Article.

§ 8. Der bestimmte Artikel hat — für die drei Geschlechter der Ein- und Mehrzahl — nur die e i n e Form *the* (9, 9; 19, 29).

§ 9. Der unbestimmte Artikel heißt *a* oder *an* (9, 15; 19, 31),

a steht vor Konsonanten und den beiden Halbvokalen (6, 27–32):

a University, *a* European, *the* she-sheep is called *a* ewe (Muttertschaf) —

a once famous ship, *Mr.* such *a* one = *Monsieur un tel* Herr So und So.

a hero, *a* heroine, *a* history, *a* humanitarian European.

an steht

1. vor Vokalen — also auch vor stummem *h*: *heir*, *hour*, *honour* (honest, honourable) und vor Buchstaben-Wörtern (54, 26), die — der Aussprache nach — mit einem Vokal anfangen: *an* M. P. = *a* member of Parliament;

2. vor unbetonter, mit *h* (6, 23) beginnender Silbe: *an* heroic action, *an* historian, *an* hotel.

Anm. Der Artikel bildet einen selbständigen Redeteil (§. 51¹⁾).

¹⁾ Den Laut *a* in Wörtern wie America, China, India, idea, punkah (Luftzufächelungs-Vorrichtung in Indien und den ostasiatischen Tropen) usw. (vgl. 12, 13) bezeichnet auch das Oxford English Dictionary (siehe §. 6, Fußnote) als *a*, nicht als *ə*.

§ 10. Der bestimmte Artikel dient dazu, Allgemeinbegriffe zu spezialisieren, d. h. den allgemeinen Begriff auf einen besonderen Fall anzuwenden.

§ 11. Daher stehen **Abstrakte und Stoffnamen** ohne Artikel, wenn sie ohne attributive Bestimmung **im allgemeinen Sinne** gebraucht werden. Time is money; the time of our life is short.

He stands high in geometry, history, and geography. — Bread is a useful article of food. The bread which you are eating is good. — Water is necessary to plants. Going over the bridge he fell into the water.

Anm. 1. Auch in einzelnen geläufigen Verbindungen, in denen — nach Auffassung des Engländers — das einem Abstraktum vorangehende Adj. mit diesem gewissermaßen zu einem Begriff verschmolzen ist, steht kein Artikel: English History, Universal (Ancient, Modern, Roman, Greek) History. — English Literature. — Divine Service Gottesdienst. Human Understanding Menschenverstand. Common Sense der gesunde Menschenverstand. Natural Philosophy = Physics Physik. Natural Science. — Vocal music = Singing. Instrumental music.

Anm. 2. Ohne Artikel stehen auch church, school, bed, exchange (Börse), prison, court u. a., wenn sie in nicht-sinnlichem Sinne gebraucht werden und gleichbedeutend sind mit divine service, teaching oder learning, sleep oder rest, commercial business, detention (Haft), attendance upon a prince (Hofdienst, Hofleben). — To be at church (school), to go to (come from) church (school), church is over; aber the church is close by the school; we live next door to the school; the carpenter was engaged in making some repairs in the church. To leave school abgehen. School is over. — To be in bed, to go to bed, to be (get) out of bed. — To be sent to prison. Ähnlich to go to sea = to adopt the calling [Beruf] or occupation of a sailor [Seemann].

§ 12. Auch der im allgemeinen Sinne gebrauchte **Plural von Gattungsnamen** steht ohne Artikel; dagegen steht der Sing. auch im allgemeinen Sinne mit dem Artikel. Tigers rarely attack anybody unless wounded 77, 22. The elephant is the natural foe of the tiger 77, 11.

The lion is a wild animal. — Dogs are domestic animals.

Anm. 1. Man und woman stehen auch im Sing. zur Bezeichnung der ganzen Gattung ohne Artikel. Man is mortal. Woman was created to be the companion, not the slave, of man.

Hieran schließt sich mankind das Menschengeschlecht, die Menschheit. Electricity is likely to bring about a great revolution in the social life of mankind 72, 15.

§ 13. **Eigennamen**, die ja schon für sich ein bestimmtes Wesen bezeichnen, stehen ohne Artikel.

The acts (Gesetzesveröffentlichungen) of Elizabeth.

Jedoch steht der Artikel, wenn die Personennamen als Gattungsbegriffe (zur Bezeichnung einer Familie) gebraucht werden:

a Plantagenet = one of the House of Plantagenet, the Plantagenets; the Henrys, the four Georges, the Cabots —

oder wenn den Personennamen ein Adj. vorangeht: the elder Pitt (died in 1778). The younger Pitt (died in 1806). The immortal Shakespeare. The mighty Caesar. The wicked John.

Ann. Doch steht kein Artikel in gewissen geläufigen Verbindungen, in denen die Adj. (wie old, young, little, poor, saint u. a.) gar nicht zur näheren Bestimmung — oder zur Unterscheidung — der Person dienen sollen, sondern mit dem Personennamen zu einem Begriffe verschmolzen sind.

Old William. Old Major. Young Harry. Poor Jackson. —

St. George. The gospel according to St. Matthew (St. Mark, St. Luke, St. John). — St. Bernard der Heilige; aber the St. Bernard = der Berg.

§ 14. Wie Eigennamen stehen ohne Artikel

- a) die Namen der **Tage, Tageszeiten, Monate**, einzelner christlicher Feste sowie meist auch der Jahreszeiten.

Sunday is the day of rest. On Thursday. When Nelson came up, night was coming on 73, 7, & 73, 25. May passed away, June arrived. Summer is the warm season of the year.

By the middle (towards (at) the end) of January. At Easter (Christmas, Whitsuntide). On Easter Monday (Shrove Tuesday, Weichdientstag, Fastnacht, Ash Wednesday, Good Friday).

Merke: **Nach** in

mit Artikel: in the morning (day, afternoon, evening, night);

ohne Artikel: in January (in the month of January), in January 1901, usw.;

meist ohne Artikel: in spring (summer, autumn, winter). Daneben auch: in the spring, aber stets mit Artikel: in the spring of (1888), usw.

- b) die **Ländernamen**, also auch Normandy, Brittany die Bretagne, Switzerland, Turkey, Oxfordshire,

selbst Wendungen wie Eastern (Western, North, South) Germany, East Asia, Old England, Modern Japan u. a.

Doch sagt man the West Indies, the East Indies (für letzteres steht häufig einfach: India), the United States, the Transvaal usw.

- c) die Namen von **Plätzen, Straßen, Brücken, öffentlichen Gebäuden, Häfen** und ähnlichen Begriffen.

Trafalgar Square, Hyde Park, Regent Circus, Regent Street, Waterloo Bridge, Somerset House, Charterhouse School, Harvard College, Westminster Abbey, St. Paul's [Cathedral], Windsor Castle, Charing Cross, South Kensington Museum, New York Harbour, Cook Strait;

aber the Golden Gate Park (near San Francisco) — the British Museum — the Tower of London — the Strand — the Capitol and the White House in Washington — the Mansion House in London.

- d) **Heaven, Hell, Paradise** und ähnliche religiöse oder personifizierte Ausdrücke: to go to Heaven (Hell) = to be saved (damned) selbst

(verdammt) werden. (Heaven = Sitz der Seligen; the sky = der (Wolken-)Himmel). Auch Nature und Providence werden meist personifiziert gedacht. The Druids worshipped the sun, the grandest object of the greatest power in nature 60, 80.

- e) oft auch: Parliament (in England) und Congress (in the United States).

§ 15. Titel oder Verwandtschaftsbezeichnungen vor einem Eigennamen stehen ohne den Artikel. King Alfred; in the time of King Alfred; stories about King Alfred (aber the good King Alfred).

Dr. Leichhardt — Uncle John, Aunt Jane. — The place of Mr. Vaughan (Mr. V's place). They spent the week end with Miss Chambers, Mrs. V's sister. Arkwright entered into partnership with Messrs. Need and Strutt. —

Doch steht der Artikel meist vor nicht-englischen Titeln, wie emperor, empress, tsar (oder in veralteter Schreibung: czar), archduke, elector Kurfürst, The Emperor William II.

Folgt of dem Titel, so steht, abgesehen von der nachgestellten Apposition, der Artikel. The Earl (Graf) of Beaconsfield oder Earl Beaconsfield.

§ 16. Mount, Lake, Cape vor dem Namen von Bergen, Seen, Vorgebirgen stehen ohne Artikel. Mount Murchison is one of the highest points of the Rocky Mountains. — Lake Erie. — Cape Cod [in Massachusetts], aber the Cape of Good Hope [in South Africa].

§ 17. Ohne Artikel stehen die Namen der **Mahlzeiten** (breakfast, lunch, luncheon, dinner, tea, supper) und table im Sinne von „Mahlzeit“.

To get ready for breakfast, before (at, after) breakfast. Breakfast is over.

Dinner is ready. To get home for tea. — To be invited to dinner. To come from dinner. The dinner we had was excellent. — Dinner was on the table. — The party were still at table when we called.

§ 18. Ohne Artikel stehen die attributiven Superlative **most** (der, die, das meiste, die meisten), sowie **last** und **next** vor Zeitbestimmungen. Like most of the Angles they had fair skins 62, 1. Most of the fish we caught were fine trout. Most of us. Most people. — Last week, last April, last night (gestern abend); before the middle of last century. Last Saturday oder on Saturday last. — Next Tuesday = on Tuesday next. — Next year, next month.

§ 19. Meist ohne Artikel steht der Superlativ eines prädikativen Adj. oder eines Adverbs. When our distress is greatest, God's assistance is nearest.

§ 20. Der Artikel fehlt in gewissen Redensarten: **to say grace** (20, 22; 21, 4); **to strike work** die Arbeit einstellen. — **To go to town**, to be taken to town, to be in town. (To go into the country.) — To be out of town verreist sein, **to leave town verreisen** — To be at home, to go home, to come from home, to leave home. — To go on shore, to get on shore. — **To shake hands with**: I shook hands with every one of them. Did he shake hands with you? — To be at war with.

§ 21. Der Artikel steht bei den **Himmelsrichtungen**, doch nicht in Verbindungen wie *from south to north, from east to west*.

The sun rises in the east, sets in the west. England is bounded on the north by Scotland. From the (towards the, to the, in the) south, east, north, west, south-east, north-west.

§ 22. Der unbestimmte Artikel steht abweichend vom Deutschen:

- a) **vor prädikativen Substantiven**, die eine Eigenschaft, Stand, Rang, Nation, Religion bezeichnen, wenn diese Eigenschaft gleichzeitig auch andern zuteil werden kann.

Winfrith was made a bishop 62, 38; he was made bishop of Mainz — The pope made Winfrith a bishop; he made him bishop of Mainz. — Leichhardt was a German by birth 58, 18; he became a student 58, 20. — The King created him a knight; he was created a knight. **§** 48, 7; 51, 3; 65, 24; 67, 4.

Ähnlich steht der unbestimmte Artikel meist **nach** **as** und **for**. Pope Gregory sent Augustine as a missionary 62, 16. Edward I. told the Welsh he would give them for a prince one who could neither speak nor understand a word of English.

When still a young man, he went out as a clerk, and some twenty years later he returned a rich merchant. **§** 65, 15; 70, 36.

Merke: as a reward zur Belohnung — as a rule in der Regel.

- b) **distributiv bei Maß- und Zeitangaben**: once a day, twice a month, three times a year. — I paid four shillings a bottle for this wine. — We have four English lessons a week now.
- c) **in bestimmten Redensarten**: it is a pity es ist schade — in a low voice mit leiser Stimme — at a lesser price 70, 25.

to have a shave sich rasieren (lassen) — to have a toothache Zahnschmerzen haben — to give a ride reiten lassen — to have a guess raten (enträtseln); vgl. 54, 12.

to become a fashion (Mode werden), it is a fashion u. a.

Anm. Nur scheinbar der unbestimmte Artikel (in Wirklichkeit eine Abschwächung der Präpos. on oder in + Gerund) liegt vor in den etwas veralteten Redewendungen to go a shooting (auf die Jagd gehen), to go a hunting (auf die Hestjagd reiten), to go a begging, the house was a building u. a.

Jetzt sagt man dafür meist: to go shooting, hunting, begging, the house was building oder was being built (§ 88 b. M. 2 und d) oder was in course (process) of building (of being built). **§** 57, 32.

§ 23. Der unbestimmte Artikel fehlt

- a) im appositiven Genitiv vor Substantiven, die eine Würde oder ein Amt bezeichnen. The Queen of England justly bears the title of Empress of India 56, 5. William II. had the honorary degree of doctor conferred on him. — He got promoted to the rank of colonel. — He succeeded in obtaining the post of clerk he had asked for.

Dagegen erfordert der einen Beruf oder ein Handwerk bezeichnende appositive Gen. den unbest. Art. Arkwright practised the trade of a barber. — He carries on the business of a baker. — He was bred to the profession of a clergyman, of a lawyer, of a physician. — He adopted the calling (the occupation) of a sailor.

- b) vor part of (ein Teil, teilweise) und plenty of (eine Menge, massenhaft). Part of the English, not perceiving the snare, followed them 64, 8. There is still plenty of time. There is plenty of room for all of us. There were plenty of us.

§ 24. Nicht wiederholt wird der Artikel:

- a) vor mehreren Substantiven. It would be a good plan to get the Angles to help them against the Picts and Scots. — In November 1907 the German Emperor and Empress went to Windsor on a visit to the King and Queen of England.

Die Setzung des Artikels würde Unterscheidung oder Nachdruck bedeuten: the Prince of Wales and the Crown Prince of Germany 79, 29; § 50, 9.

- b) vor mehreren Adjektiven, wenn die Attribute nicht verschiedene Personen oder Sachen bezeichnen. Alfred the Great was a wise and good man; aber: so hard is it for a rich and a poor man to meet on equal terms 71, 8. —

Is he a tall or a short man? — A black and white flag = one flag; a black and a white flag = two flags.

Lakes Erie and Ontario = Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. — The English and French languages = the English and the French language. — The French and Spanish fleets 74, 10 = the French and the Spanish fleet.

Das Hauptwort. The Noun.

§ 25. **Declination (Declension: to decline).** Das englische Substantiv unterscheidet den Plural von dem Singular und besitzt außerdem noch eine Kasusendung (die des jächsischen Genitivs = 's, sprich: *apostrophe ess*). Die ganze übrige Declination wird durch of und to umschrieben. Vgl. 21, 35—22, 15; 52, 9.

The boy — of the boy — to the boy — the boy.

The boys — of the boys — to the boys — the boys.

A boy — of a boy — to a boy — a boy.

Boys — of boys — to boys — boys.

Bob — of Bob — to Bob — Bob.

§ 26. Die meisten Subst. bilden ihren **Plural auf s**, welches, falls sie auf einen Zischlaut (7, 4) endigen, zu der vollen Silbe *iz* erweitert wird (41, 32; 52, 9).

Die Pluralendung *s* ist meist stimmhaft; stimmlos nur nach den stimmlosen Konsonanten *p, f, t, k, th* (= *þ*); vgl. 21, 29.

Für die nach einem Zischlaute eintretende, ^{iz} gesprochene Endung wird es geschrieben nach allen nicht auf stummes *-e* endenden Zischlauten: things, moments, caps, cabs, beds, bats, docks, dogs, months; — gas gases; class classes; — dish dishes; church churches; fox foxes; — price Kostenpreis prices, prize Prämie prizes; purse Portemonnaie purses.

Anm. 1. Wörter, in denen eh nicht den Zischlaut (sondern den Laut *k*) ausdrückt, hängen im Plural einfach *s* an: monarchs.

Anm. 2. Colonies, mosquitoes, tomatoes, heroes, potatoes Kartoffeln. Nach *o* und *y* mit vorhergehendem Konsonanten schreibt man im Plural *-es* (41, 36—38); ausgenommen sind oft Fremdwörter, z. B. pianos, tobaccos, cantos, folios, Hindoos.

Merke: cuckoos, photos = photographs, by twos zu zweien.

Anm. 3. Stimmlose Endkonsonanten in Wörtern germanischer Herkunft werden im Plural meist stimmhaft: house houses, bath baths, half halves.

Hierher gehören: a) ein Wort auf *s*: house;

b) sieben auf *þ*: bath — path — lath — oath — mouth — truth — youth: baths Bäder, paths Pfade, laths Latten, oaths Eide, mouths Mündungen, truths Wahrheiten, youths Jünglinge;

c) vierzehn auf *-f* oder *-fe*: knife, life, wife — calf, half, wolf — shelf, elf, staff — loaf, sheaf, leaf — thief, wharf — knives Messer, lives Lebensbeschreibungen, wives Ehefrauen, calves Kälber, halves Hälften, wolves Wölfe, shelves Simse, [Bücher=]bretter, elves Elfen, staves Stäbe (doch: flagstaves), loaves Laib Brot, einzelne Brote, sheaves Garben, leaves Blätter, thieves Diebe, wharves Werften.

Dagegen haben *fs*: — 1. alle fremden Wörter (wie handkerchiefs Taschentücher, proofs Beweise, cuffs Manschetten, safes (feuer)feste (diebes)sichere Schränke, Behälter (aber he saves er rettet), u. a. — 2. ferner roofs Dächer, reefs Riffe, cliffs Klippen, dwarfs Zwerge u. a.

§ 27. Andere Pluralbildung:

altgermanische *starke* Plurale **mit Umlaut**: man, woman, foot, goose, tooth, mouse, louse — men, women, feet, geese Gänse, teeth Zähne, mice Mäuse, lice Läuse;

altgermanische *schwache* Plurale **auf en**: ox, child, brother — oxen, children, brethren.

brethren Mitbrüder, Mitmenschen, Mitglieder der kirchlichen oder menschlichen Gesellschaft; brothers leibliche Brüder.

doppelten Plural haben cloth Tuch — die Münzstempel, Spielwürfel — pea Erbsen — penny:

cloths Tücher, clothes Kleider — dies Münzstempel, dice Würfel — pease Erbsen im allgemeinen (als Ware, Pflanzung), peas einzelne Erbsenkörner, -pflanzen (doch green peas Schoten) — pennies Pfennigstücke, pence als Wertbezeichnung (four shillings and twopence half-penny 24, 18, threepence, sixpence. Merke: three halfpence = $1\frac{1}{2}$ d; three halfpennies drei Halbpennystücke; two sixpences zwei Sixpencestücke.

Fremdwörter behalten oft ihre fremde Pluralform:

italienische: dilettante, -anti; virtuoso, -osi oder -osos.

lateinische: genius Schutzgeist, Genie: genii Schutzgeister (geniuses Männer von hervorragenden Geistesgaben), — crematorium Leichenverbrennungs-Ofen: crematoria — species: species — et cetera (cetera = and the rest, and so on) — et sequentes (sequentia) = and those that follow.

griechische: crisis entscheidender Wendepunkt: crises — phenomenon Naturerscheinung; phenomena.

Dieselbe Form im Plural wie im Sing. haben

1. sheep, deer, swine, grouse;

sheep Schaf, -e — deer geweihtragendes Wild — swine Schwein, -e (dafür häufiger: pig, pigs) — grouse Moorhuhn, -Hühner;

2. means Mittel — news Nachricht — pains Mühe — alms Almosen. by this (these) means auf diese Weise; by all means jedenfalls, by no means keineswegs. Much pains (viele Mühe) was (were) taken to . . [aber: many pains viele Schmerzen]. § 74, 36.

Merke: the people „der Volksstamm“ ist Sing. (Plur. peoples Volksstämme), doch people „die Leute“ ist stets Plural: these people diese Leute (aber these peoples diese Völkerschaften; these nations diese Völker) — people say (ohne Artikel, aber: the people of this place say).

§ 28. Die mit man zusammengesetzten Subst. haben im Plural ebenfalls men: Englishmen, gentlemen, horsemen, Northmen; dagegen the Romans, the Germans, the Normans, the Mussulmans.

Von zwei unmittelbar miteinander verbundenen Subst. erhält nur das letzte das Pluralzeichen (53, 24): steamboats, railway-carriages, merchant-men Handelschiffe, stage-coaches Postkutschen, sight-seers Schau lustige, tooth-brushes Zahnbürsten, corkscrews Rorkzieher, Lord Mayors,

ebenso new-comers, coaling stations (a goods-station Güterbahnhof, goods-stations), savings-bank-books (a savings-bank-book Sparfassenbuch).

Bei anderen Verbindungen erhält dasjenige Wort das Pluralzeichen, welches tatsächlich in den Plural tritt: brothers-in-law

Schwäger, men-of-war Kriegsschiffe, cousins-german = first-cousins
 leibliche Vettern (Basen), lookers-on Zuschauer.

Merke: men servants (aber servant-men), women servants (aber servant-women); women-teachers (aber lady-teachers); men teachers = gentlemen teachers; — (three) spoonfuls (drei) Löffel voll — forget-me-nots Vergißmeinnicht.
 — **Mr. Smith:** the Mr. Smiths oder (the) Messrs Smith; — **Miss Smith:** the Miss Smiths oder the Misses Smith; — aber nur the brothers (sisters) Smith; the brothers Grimm.

§ 29. Der **flektierte** (sogenannte **sächsishe**) **Genitiv** wird gebildet durch Anhängung von -s an den Sing. und die nicht auf -s endigenden Plurale, von ' an die auf -s endigenden Plurale.

Der flektierte Gen. steht **vor** seinem regierenden Kasus: Bob's bed = the bed of Bob, the master's desk = the desk of the master; — men's, children's; boys'; a ladies' tailor; vgl. 21, 35—22, 8 u. § 37.

Anm. 1. Beachte die Aussprache von Wörtern wie James's 22, 5, Charles's, Dickens's. Zuweilen steht in Eigennamen nach Zischlauten auch einfach ' (apostrophe): Saunders' 81, 9; Guy Fawkes' 81, 13. **§** 70, 15.

Merke: for Jesus' sake = for Christ's sake.

Anm. 2. Beachte folgende Verbindungen: at Tim's father's place = at the place of Tim's father. Tim's and Bob's fathers, aber Edith and Tim's father. Mr. and Mrs V.'s children. In Edward IV.'s reign = in Edward the Fourth's reign. Harold, the last Saxon king's death. The Prince of Wales's visit to India. The Emperor of Germany's mother. Her son-in-law's house, her sons-in-law's house. Somebody else's hat der Hut von jemand anders.

§ 30. Das **Geschlecht der Subst.** (52, 11) wird zuweilen bezeichnet

a) durch besondere Endungen: lion lioness, emperor empress, master mistress, duke duchess, prince princess, actor actress, heir heiress;

b) durch Vorsetzung von Wörtern:

Tiere werden unterschieden durch he she, male female, cock hen: a she-bear, a she-monkey, a cock bird, a hen bird;

Personen durch man maid (selten male female), gentleman lady: a man-servant, a maid-servant; a gentleman teacher, a lady-teacher. Jedoch ist diese Unterscheidung selten; gewöhnlich entscheidet einfach der Zusammenhang über das Geschlecht von Wörtern wie: enemy Feind, -in; friend; companion Gefährte, -in; cousin Vetter, Cousine; neighbour, pupil, slave, saint, dancer, reader, teacher, so daß also servant meist 'Dienstmädchen' heißt, selten 'Diener'.

§ 31. Die Bezeichnungen von **Personen haben das natürliche Geschlecht**, die von **Sachen sind sächlich** (19, 33). Die Tiere sind entweder sächlich oder richten sich nach dem natürlichen Geschlecht.

Auch sonst werden oft als männlich gebraucht: dog, horse, elephant, lion, tiger u. a., als weiblich cat, fox u. a.

Meist weiblich sind die **Bezeichnungen** (ship, air-ship, boat, steamer, steam-boat, engine locomotive, man-of-war) **und die Namen der Schiffe** (wie Orient 73, 22, Victory 74, 28).

In der gehobenen und der dichterischen Sprache sind oft männlich sun die Sonne und einzelne Abstrakte, wie death, — weiblich moon der Mond und einzelne Abstrakte, wie fortune (71, 6) und die Namen der Länder (England 78, 9).

§ 32. Nur im Sing. werden gebraucht

a) in kollektivem Sinne cattle Rindvieh — fish Fisch, Fische — fowl Federvieh — poultry Geflügel — hair Haar, Haare — sail Segel, Segelschiffe — fruit Frucht, Obst, Früchte — foot = infantry, horse = cavalry, cannon = artillery. A fleet of twenty-seven sail 74, 6; shot Schrot, Geschosse, shell Granaten.

b) pair und dozen, wenn sie mit Zahlen verbunden sind: two pair of boots, two dozen (of) pens = 24 pens, aber dozens (oder heaps) of times wer weiß wie oft, dozens of mistakes massenhaft Fehler, by dozens (wofür häufiger: by the dozen) duzendweise.

Auch bei anderen Sammelzahl-Ausdrücken steht, wenn sie mit Zahlen verbunden sind, der Sing.: gross (= 12 dozen) — score (= twenty: Stiege) — quire (= 24 sheets of equal size) — hundred weight (Zentner, abgekürzt: cwt = 112 lbs in England, 100 pounds in Amerika — stone (14 lbs Körpergewicht) — head (Stück Vieh oder Wild): — five quire of notepaper 5 Buch Briefpapier; a thousand head of cattle 1000 Rinder [aber two heads of cattle zwei Rinderköpfe].

Bei anderen Maßbestimmungen steht jedoch der Plural: 1825 metres long, 85 feet wide, 70 yards high, 13 inches and a half in diameter, ten years old. Merke: a five pound note.

c) advice Rat, Rat schläge — business Geschäft, =e — knowledge Kenntniß, =isse — merchandise Kaufmannsgut, =güter — produce Produkt, =e — progress Fortschritt, =e (much progress) — -ware (hardware Eisen- und Kurzwaren) — furniture Möbel; much advice viele Rat schläge.

In anderer Bedeutung haben advice, business und progress einen Plural: advices Handelsberichte, Nachrichten; businesses Geschäftsläden; progresses Rundreisen eines Fürsten durch seine Länder.

d) bread Brot; der Plural breads ist selten, man sagt loaves, rolls oder dgl.

§ 33. Nur im Plural werden gebraucht: trousers Hosen — scissors Schere — braces Hosenträger — contents Inhalt — thanks Dank — the middle ages das Mittelalter — riches Reichtum.

Merke a pair (two pair) of scissors (trousers) eine Schere, ein Paar Hosen; many thanks vielen Dank. — oats Hafer (kollektiv) ist plur: Quaker oats. In Zusammensetzungen steht der si: oat-field, ~ meal (= Mehl), ~ straw (= Stroh).

§ 34. Doppelte — oder vom Sing. abweichende — **Bedeutung** haben im Plural: force Kraft, forces Streitkräfte, Truppen — spectacle Schauspiel, Anblick, spectacles Brille (a pair of spectacles) — physic Arzneifunde, Arznei, physics Physik — stair (= step), Stufe, stairs Treppe (up stairs, down stairs, a flight of stairs; he lives up three pair of stairs).

§ 35. Trotz ihrer Pluralform werden meist als Sing. gebraucht die Namen der **Wissenschaften auf -ics**.

Mathematics is (auch are) taught in all secondary schools of Germany besides classics and modern languages.

Merke: als Singular gilt auch the Times (Name der Zeitung) 66, 24.

§ 36. Nach einem **Kollektivnamen** als Subjekt steht das **Prädikat oft im Plural**, besonders wenn an die einzelnen Bestandteile desselben gedacht wird. The public are requested to keep the walks (= to keep off the grass); — so besonders nach family, army, enemy, people (§ 41 e) u. a., party § 77, 13.

§ 37. Der **flektierte Genitiv** wird vorzugsweise von Substantiven gebildet, die ein lebendes Wesen bezeichnen. Da er meist ein Besitzverhältnis ausdrückt, wird er auch possessive case genannt; vgl. 21, 35—22, 8 und § 29. Er **bezeichnet**

- a) zumeist eine **Person**, der etwas angehört, von der etwas herrührt, oder die das Subjekt einer Tätigkeit ist.

Bob's bed — Chaucer's works — Harold's accession — On somebody's telling him 62, 5. — The mariner's compass 66, 26.

Anm. Besonders ist zu merken der Gebrauch des flektierten Genitivs

1. mit Ergänzung von shop (in America store), house, office, hotel, church u. a. in Wendungen wie: The doctor's is on the other side of the street. I passed the doctor's on my way home. I will go to the doctor's now. — I bought this penknife at the stationer's round the corner.

2. mit Ergänzung der Pluralform des im Sing. vorhergehenden Substantivs in Wendungen wie: He is no friend of my father's. We went to see some pictures of our drawing-master's. This is an old book of my mother's.

- b) In einzelnen Wendungen steht der flektierte Genitiv auch bei **Sachnamen** zur Bezeichnung von **Zeit-** oder **Raumbestimmungen**.

a few minutes' walk; the Seven Years' War; seven days' notice (Kündigung). A week's rent (Miete). He will stay with us till New Year's day (New Year's Eve). In to-day's (yesterday's, to-morrow's) paper in der heutigen Zeitung. — One hour's sleep before midnight is worth two hours' after. — I wish you a good night's rest. A bird's-eye view Ansicht aus der Vogelschau § 58, 30; 77, 27.

§ 38. Der mit of umschriebene Genitiv kann in allen Fällen stehen, in denen ein Genitivverhältnis ausgedrückt werden soll. Derselbe **muß stehen**

a) **bei substantivierten Adjektiven:** the blood (Blut) of the dead and dying — the constitution (Verfassung) of the English;

b) **als Quantitätsgenitiv** in Ausdrücken wie: a glass of milk, a bottle of wine, a pint of beer, a cup of tea, a piece of bread, a pound of meat, a pair of gloves, a regiment of cavalry, a pot of coffee.

c) **als appositiver Genitiv** in Ausdrücken wie: the province of Brandenburg, the kingdom of Prussia, the Isle of Wight, the city of New York, the month of July — the title of empress of India, the title of the Great, the title of king — the name of Charles, § 68, 33;

aber man sagt Cape Cod, Lake Michigan, the river Thames, Mount Murchison, King Alfred usw.

d) **als objektiver Genitiv:** the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. Beim subjektiven Genitiv steht entweder of oder die flektierte Form (§ 37 a): the enemy's fear (oder the fear of the enemy) was great = the fear felt by the enemy; aber nur mit of: their fear of the enemy was great = they feared the enemy greatly.

§ 39. Die Apposition hat keine Kasuspräposition, d. h. sie hat nie of oder to vor sich. Den Artikel hat die zu Sachnamen, oft auch die zu Personenamen gehörige Apposition; folgt sie einem Eigennamen als Titel oder Verwandtschaftsnamen, so steht meist kein Artikel, vgl. § 15. Leichhardt started from Sydney, the capital of New South Wales 58, 10. New York was called after the king's brother, James, Duke of York and Albany 56, 24. Julius Caesar, a Roman general 61, 2. Bertha, daughter of a Frankish king 62, 25. Mary, Queen of Scots 81, 42.

§ 40. Fürwörter. Pronouns.

Personal- pronomen	Adj. Possessivpr.	Subst. Possessivpr.	Reflexivpronomen
I ich	my mein	mine der meinige	myself ich selbst
me mir, mich			myself mir (mich)
you du	your dein,	yours der deinige	yourself du (Sie) selbst
you dir, dich	Yhr		yourself { Dir, sich Dich, sich
he er	his sein	his der seinige	himself er selbst
him ihm, ihn			himself sich
she sie	her ihr	hers der ihrige	herself sie selbst
her ihr, sie			herself sich

Personal- pronomen	Adj. Possessivr.	Subst. Possessivr.	Reflexivpronomen
it es	its sein	its der seinige	itself es selbst
it ihm, es			itself sich
we wir	our unser	ours der unsrige	ourselves wir selbst
us uns			ourselves uns
you ihr, Sie	youreuer, Ihr	yours (der eurige der Ihrige	yourselves ihr (Sie) selbst
you euch, Ihnen, Sie			yourselves euch, sich
they sie	their ihr	theirs der ihrige	themselves sie selbst
them ihnen, sie			themselves sich

Archaisische (veraltete) Formen sind: — **thou du** — thee dir, dich, thy, thine, thyself (in der Dichter- und Kirchensprache noch gebräuchlich, nur selten noch in der Quäkersprache, § 74, 14—21; 78, 22—24; und — **ye ihr**. — (Thee steht in der Quäkersprache sehr oft, aber auch sonst zuweilen als *Nominativ*).

§ 41. Das persönliche Fürwort (The Personal Pronoun).

a) Der **Genitiv** wird mit **of**, der **Dativ** mit **to** bezeichnet:

of me meiner, von mir, to me mir; of us unser, von uns, to
of you deiner (euer), to you dir (euch), [us uns,
of him seiner, to him ihm
of her ihrer, to her ihr } of them ihrer, to them ihnen
of it seiner, to it ihm

Merke: of it (them) davon — with it (them) damit — for it (them) dafür
— through it (them) dadurch — on it (them) daran usw.

Bemerkung: Of it (davon, daraus) bleibt oft unübersetzt in Wendungen wie:
[we are going to take a fortnight's holiday in August and hope] to make (to
have) a jolly (a high) time of it = lustig und fröhlich sein. § 28, 19; 39, 26. —
Der Gedankeninhalt, auf den sich of it dabei bezieht, kommt zuweilen nur undeutlich
oder gar nicht zum Ausdruck: to make a night of it die Nacht aufbleiben,
durchschwärmen.

b) Das **Personalpronomen** fehlt oft in Redewendungen wie: thank
you danke, pray bitte, [(I) thank you, sir, § 74, 27, (I) pray, do not
forsake me] — und stets **nach** einem **Relativ**, dessen Beziehungswort ein
Personalpronomen ist: **I who am** your best friend; **you who are** my
b. f.; **he who is** my b. f., usw.

c) „**es**“ wird übersetzt: durch it — durch there — durch he, she,
they — durch so.

„**es**“ = it als Subjekt unpersönlicher Verben (it snows, it
seems, it happens, it strikes nine . . .);

zur Hervorhebung eines Satzgliedes (it is I who am wrong; it is you who are wrong; it is he who is wrong); das Verb steht hierbei stets im Sing. it is we (you, they) who are wrong. It was the English who had won the East Indies 72, 39; § 66, 87; 71, 22, vgl. § 113 b; —

als grammatisches Subjekt, wenn das logische Subjekt als Infinitiv oder Nebensatz folgt (it must have been terrible to hear the thunder of the cannon 73, 15; § 71, 31).

„es“ = **there** als Hinweisung auf ein folgendes Subjekt bei to be und den intransitiven Verben; das Prädikat richtet sich hierbei nach dem Subjekt: there were so many people 24, 32. — There came by a priest 62, 3.

„es“ = **he, she**, wenn es als Subjekt zum Hilfsverb sein eine bestimmte Person, = **they**, wenn es mehrere bestimmte Personen oder Sachen vertritt. On somebody's telling him they were Angles 62, 5 (§ 73, 32). — Who is the man? He is my tailor. — Who are these boys? They are my brothers. — Do you know that lady? Yes, I do; she is my cousin. — He is none other than Dr. F. es ist niemand anders als der Dr. F. — Aber: Who was here? It was my cousin.

„es“ = **so**, wenn es bei to be und bei intransitiven Verben das prädikative Adj. — oder als Objekt bei den Verben des Tuns, Sagens und Denkens ein Verb oder einen ganzen Satz — vertritt. You say, you are hungry; so am I. — You say you feel thirsty; so do I. — Shall we be in time for the 8.35 train? Yes, I think (believe) so. Who said so? He said so more than once. — § 70, 35; 73, 30; 73, 38.

d) „es“ wird nicht übersetzt,

wenn es als Objekt eines Hilfsverbs das vorangegangene Verb vertritt. I hope you will enjoy your holidays. I am sure I shall 34, 34; vgl. 41, 25 und § 73 Anm.;

in Antworten nach to be, wenn es ein vorangegangenes Subst. oder Adj. vertritt. Are you my uncle's new footman (Zafai)? Yes, sir, I am (No, sir, I am not). — Is she rich? No, she is not;

wenn es auf einen Objektsatz hinweist. Ought man, then, to wonder if the Northmen preferred (es vorzogen) to stay in the sunny lands of France? Auch die auf einen folgenden Infinitiv oder Konjunktionalsatz hinweisenden Adverbien „daran“, „darauf“, „dafür“ bleiben unübersetzt: Columbus never doubted that he would succeed in reaching India.

e) Das deutsche **man** wird durch one, — durch people — durch man, men, we, you, they, — und sehr häufig **durch** das **Passiv** übersetzt.

Beispiele: one; § 61, 25; 77, 8; 80, 4. — In order to see fine horses, people in London go to Rotten Row in Hyde Park. § 57, 18. — Man can express his thoughts by speech (men . . their; we . . our; you, as a human being, c. exp. your . .) — we § 83, 30; 72, 10. — Man hat's mir gesagt people told me so; they told me so; I was told so. **Passivisch:** He was pardoned. The doctor was sent for. § 60, 38; 60, 32; 66, 11; 73, 26; 71, 31; 71, 32.

Ann. one hat den Akkusativ one, den Genitiv one's, das Reflexiv oneself (ältere Schreibung one's self); vgl. § 43a. One cannot do too much good to one's fellow-creatures — One ought not to talk too much of oneself. § 35, 36; 74, 2.

Merke: one's bezieht sich stets nur auf das (klar ausgedrückte oder zu denkende) Subjekt one, — nicht auf every one, some one: One has one's faults; every one has his faults. Some one has left his umbrella behind.

§ 42. Das rückbezügliche Fürwort (The Reflexive Pronoun)

a) dient zur Bezeichnung eines reflexiven Verhältnisses bei Verben (he had so greatly distinguished himself 62, 11; vgl. § 82) — zur Verstärkung eines Subst., eines Personalpr. oder eines auf ein Subst. zurückweisenden Relativs: The river itself, was the only connection between them 56, 28. Count them yourself 60, 13. Bertha, who was herself already a believer 62, 26. § 57, 23; 35, 36.

b) Wenn die Dative und Akkus. der persönlichen Fürwörter (mir mich, dir dich, sich, uns, euch, sich) dieselbe Person wie das Subjekt bezeichnen, so werden sie durch das Reflexivpronomen (myself, yourself, himself usw.) übersetzt. I imagined myself once more a school-boy 58, 32. § 62, 27; 59, 4; 59, 24.

Merke: he defends me, I defend myself — he defends us, we defend ourselves — we defended you, why did you not defend yourselves? — we shall defend them, they will defend themselves — we shall defend her, she cannot defend herself — we shall defend you; shall you not defend yourself (yourselves)? — we shall not defend him; he can defend himself — we shall defend the child; it (he, she) cannot defend itself (himself, herself).

Ausn. Nach Präpositionen steht statt des Reflexivs das persönliche Fürwort, wenn eine räumliche Beziehung ausgedrückt wird, und keine nachdrückliche Betonung des Fürwortes vorliegt. Dr. Leichhardt had with him six Europeans 58, 34. They took with them 15 horses 58, 36. § 77, 21. I had no change (no small money) about me.

c) Sind die Fürwörter „uns, euch, sich“ gleichbedeutend mit „einander“, so werden sie durch die wechselseitigen oder **reziproken** (*reciprocal*) Fürwörter **each other** oder **one another** übersetzt. Love each other (one another) liebet euch! We loved each other. They hated one another. — They did not understand each other's language.

Unterscheide: They defended themselves, they defended each other; they deceived themselves, they deceived each other.

Ann. 1. Die **Präpositionen** stehen **vor** each other oder one another. Not far from each other 59, 2. They tried to set them against one another 61, 25.

Ann. 2. Demnach kann „sich“ auf neun Weisen übersetzt werden: durch oneself (35, 36), himself, herself, itself, yourself, yourselves, themselves, each other, one another; — durch oneself nur, wenn es sich zurückbezieht auf das unbestimmte Subjekt one (man, einer), oder wenn bei einem Infinitiv kein bestimmtes Subjekt angegeben ist. § 82 a. § 41 e. A.

§ 43. Das besitzanzeigende Fürwort, The Possessive Pronoun (32, 6 und § 40).

a) „**Sein**“ auf ein unbestimmtes Subjekt bezogen heißt one's, siehe § 41 e. A.;

b) Das **substantivische** Possessivpronomen steht stets **ohne Artikel**, auch wenn es prädikativ gebraucht ist: mine is getting bound [= my dictionary] 18, 1. § 32, 7; 34, 16; 59, 9; 74, 28. — This dictionary is mine; these dictionaries are mine. — Believe me, to be, dear Sir, Yours, respectfully, N. N.

c) Sind zwei Possessive mit einem Substantiv verbunden, so steht das zweite in der substantivischen Form hinter dem Substantiv: your father and mine 34, 24 dein und mein Vater. — Our house and theirs are close to each other.

d) Statt des adjektivischen Possessivs steht besonders in der Umgangssprache das substantivische oft, wenn vor einem Subst. ein anderes Pronomen oder no oder a steht. **An old College friend of ours** 82, 39 = one of our old College friends; § 37 a A. 2. — He is a friend of mine = one of my friends. — All friends of yours (= all your friends) will be heartily welcome to me.

e) **Pleonastisch** steht das Possessiv da, wo die Zugehörigkeit eine selbstverständliche ist, in vielen Wendungen, namentlich bei den Namen von Körperteilen und Kleidungsstücken: Bob . . **rubbing his** (sich die) **eyes** 14, 9. — Gilbert got killed by a spear which pierced his (ihm die) chest 59, 9. — § 56, 43; 68, 29; 68, 30. — I had my hair cut. — Where do you get your clothes made? — Take off your hat before entering the room. — My head aches = I have a headache ich habe Kopfschmerz, mir tut der Kopf weh. — I beg your pardon (begging his pardon 69, 2; he begged my pardon; he begs her pardon).

f) own „eigen“ steht nur in Verbindung mit einem adjektivischen Possessiv (oder nach einem sächsischen Genitiv § 29, § 37, § 43 a) und zwar meist mit of hinter seinem Substantiv: I have got my own room oder a room of my own. My father has no house of his own. § 71, 11. The Boys' Own Paper = Schülerzeitchrift.

§ 44. Das hinzeigende Fürwort, The Demonstrative Pronoun (32, 8).

a) Sing.: this dieser that jener the same derselbe such solcher
 Plur.: these those the same such

Anm. the same = 'derselbe' im Sinne von 'der nämliche', 'genau der gleiche', — verstärkt: the very same 'ganz genau derselbe'.

b) this und that sind allein stehend sächlich: „dies“, „jenes“ („das“). Allein stehend auf eine Person bezogen, müssen sie one oder ein entsprechendes Subst. hinter sich haben. Die Plurale these, those werden jedoch auch in bezug auf Personen substantivisch gebraucht.

c) Weisen „dies“ und „das“ auf ein Subst. im Plural, so werden sie durch die Plurale these, those oder such übersetzt:

Such were his last words. — These are my books and those are yours. § 62, 9.

d) this, these vor Zahl ausdrücken bei Zeitbestimmungen weisen auf einen in die Gegenwart des Sprechenden hineinreichenden Zeitraum der Vergangenheit oder Zukunft: I have not been out this fortnight; I shall not be ready this fortnight (vor 14 Tagen). — My daughter has been dead these (seit) six months. — I shall not be able to go there these six months (vgl. § 85, und § 107, 5 „seit“).

e) Als **Determinativ** (32, 10) dient vor einem Substantiv that (oder the), ohne Substantiv he (she, that; they oder those); vgl. § 41 a.

derjenige, welcher he who } Plur.: they (those) who oder such as,
 diejenige, welche she who }
 dasjenige, was that which, Plur. those which,

derjenige Knabe, welcher that (oder the) boy who,
 diejenigen Knaben, welche those (oder the) boys who (21, 19).

Such as (= they who) had lost all their other property, would often stake their own personal freedom on a throw of the dice 62, 19. — § 32, 10—13; 60, 32; 61, 23.

„Derjenige“, „der“ als Vertreter eines aus dem Vorhergehenden zu ergänzenden Substantivs = that, Plur. those.

Cook discovered the strait that bears his name, and that between Australia and New Guinea 58, 1. — § 61, 18; 62, 28.

Anm. Statt he who ‚derjenige, welcher‘ findet sich auch the one who oder that one who.

§ 45. Die **Frageförwörter** (The Interrogative Pronouns 32, 14; 23, 7) sind who, what, which.

a) **who** fragt substantivisch allgemein nach Personen: **wer?** whose wessen? — whom wen? — to whom? wem? zu wem? an wen? — of whom? von wem?

what fragt 1. substantivisch allgemein nach Sachen: **was?** of what wovon? to what wozu, woran? what was? — 2. adjektivisch allgemein nach Personen oder Sachen: **was für ein?** welcher?

which fragt substantivisch oder adjektivisch als Auswahlpronomen nach einzelnen — (unter wenigen ganz) bestimmten — Personen oder Sachen: wer? was; was für ein? **welcher?**

Who could not find his sponge? Which of the two boys could not find it? — In what year did William the Conqueror come to England? — In which of the Queen's three chief residences was William II. entertained? — § 23, 7—18; 32, 14—21.

Who ist auch pluralisch: § 32, 15—16.

b) Eine mit dem Frageförmwort verbundene **Präposition** steht meist **hinter** dem **Verb**. 'What are you thinking of? 60, 12. — Whom was Bob speaking to? — What are you looking at?

Ähnlich bei dem Frageadverb where? Where did they come from? = From where . . 60, 17.

Anm. Bei nachgestellter Präposition setzt die — zwanglose, nicht die vornehme — Umgangssprache statt whom zuweilen who: Who is Paradise Lost by? — Who is that new piece by? = By whom is . .

c) Das adjektivische Frageförmwort **what** steht in der wirklichen Frage stets ohne Artikel, dagegen heißt „was für ein“ in der **rhetorischen Frage** (im verwunderten Ausruf) **what a**. What a wonderful impression it does make upon a European visitor 57, 12. Vgl. § 114a Anm.; § 117b.

§ 46. Das zurückweisende Förmwort, The Relative Pronoun (32, 21).

a) **who** welcher, e, es; e — steht in bezug auf **Personen**: — oder whose (of whom), to whom, whom,

which welcher, e, es; e — steht in bezug auf **Sachen** (und Tiere) oder auf den Inhalt eines ganzen Satzes,

that welcher, e, es; e — steht im Nominativ oder Akkusativ — nur in einschränkenden Relativsätzen — in bezug auf **Sachen und Personen**.

what = „das, was“ — steht meist an Stelle des volleren that which.

b) They laugh best who laugh last 2, 18. — Afterwards Colonel Roebing was chosen, an engineer of greater experience, to whom the work was entrusted (und ihm wurde dann . .) 56, 36. § 32, 22—35; 56, 21; 56, 30—31; 57, 24; 61, 21; 61, 32; 62, 30; 63, 44.

Der Relativsatz des ersten Satzes ist notwendig für das Verständnis des Sinnes; der zweite Satz wäre auch ohne seinen Relativsatz verständlich. Relativsätze, welche für das Verständnis des Satzes notwendig sind und zur näheren Bestimmung ihres Beziehungswortes dienen, heißen einschränkende Relativsätze (restrictive, or qualifying, relative clauses). — Relativsätze, welche nur eine beiläufige, die Erzählung fortföhrnde Angabe enthalten, heißen erweiternde (amplifying or explanatory). Statt eines erweiternden Relativsatzes kann im Deutschen oft ein Hauptsatz stehen.

Nur vor erweiternden Relativsätzen steht ein Komma.

In einschränkenden Relativsätzen kann **that** statt **who**, **whom** oder **which** stehen; **that** — als Relativ — hat aber nie eine Präposition vor sich.

In einschränkenden Relativsätzen kann der Affusativ des Relativs **ausfallen**, wenn vor ihm keine Präposition steht (32, 29).

It was a cruel religion [which] they taught 60, 25. The first question [that] Tim asks is where Old Major is 35, 37. The Angles drove out the very people [whom] they had come to defend 61, 34. § 17, 33; 28, 6; 31, 9, 32, 34.

Eine mit dem Relativ verbundene **Präposition** kann **hinter das Verb** treten. Auch in diesem Falle kann der Affusativ ausfallen.

Just as the similar stone circles *which one meets with* in other parts of the British islands 60, 20 = *with which one meets*: bei nachgestellter Präposition kann **that** für **which** eintreten: *that one meets with*; bei ausgefallenem Affus. = *one meets with*.

He keeps the oar **he rowed with** = 50, 17 = **which** (oder **that**) **he rowed with** = **with which he rowed**. — § 61, 30.

Anm. 1. Die Auslassung des Nominativs des Relativpronomens gilt — außer in der Umgangssprache in Sätzen mit *there is* — in der heutigen Sprache nicht für zulässig. *Here is somebody wants to see you*.

Anm. 2. Im Anschluß an einen negativen Begriff findet sich für „welcher nicht“ — in der Schriftsprache — zuweilen einfach *but*; vgl. § 111, 4a.

c) whose — meist nur auf Personen bezüglich — ist Possessivkasus und kann nur von einem Substantiv abhängen, dessen Artikel es verdrängt, und vor dem es steht;

of whom — auf Personen bezüglich — ist von einem Adj. oder Verb abhängig;

of which — auf Sachen bezüglich — steht hinter dem Subst., von dem es abhängt.

They burned cattle . . as sacrifices to some god, whose favour they desired to win, or whose wrath they wished to turn away 60, 27. — Persecuting the Druids, of whom they were very much afraid 61, 8. — Above this was . . the jewelled umbrella, with the possession of which Indian tradition connects the rulership of India 56, 3. — To provide themselves with some fresh meat, Leichhardt and his party killed (schossen) wild animals and birds, of which there were plenty in the country. — § 73, 5; 73, 1; 56, 16; 57, 22.

d) that, das nur in einschränkenden Relativsätzen und nie nach einer Präposition steht, wird vorzugsweise gebraucht nach den Neutren *all* (alles), *everything* (alles) und *nothing*, sowie nach *the same*, nach Superlativen und Ordnungszahlen. *All that you do, do with your*

might! 3, 11. (Über all who alle, die 59, 28. Everything that 74, 34. Nothing that 73, 41. The same that 61, 30. The first that 35, 37. The last that. — The very best [that] I ever saw.

e) **was** = **what**, wenn es gleichbedeutend ist mit „daß, was“, „dasjenige, was“ (Englisch steht hierfür zuweilen auch that which); what steht immer ohne Beziehungswort. Französisch: ce qui, ce que. — § 21, 20.

was = **which**, wenn es sich auf den Inhalt des vorhergehenden Satzes bezieht und gleichbedeutend ist mit „und dieß“ (§ 61, 11).

What cannot be cured must be endured. That's just what I wanted. They were highly pleased with what we told them. You can never rely on what he says. He seldom objects to what I propose.

Anm. Das deutsche „was“ wird demnach übersetzt: als Interrogativ durch what (what a), which, — als Relativ durch what, that, which.

f) Verallgemeinernde Relative werden mit ever gebildet: whoever (whosoever wer auch immer), whichever (whichsoever), whatever (whatsoever). Whichever way they went, they heard nothing of the unfortunate explorer. — § 61, 17; 68, 19.

§ 47. Unbestimmte Fürwörter (Indefinite Pronouns).

a) Nur **adjektivisch** sind: no kein und die Singulare every jeder (zu einer Gattung gehörige) und many a mancher.

Nur **substantivisch** sind: others andere (the others substantivisch die anderen), one einer, none niemand, sowie die Zusammensetzungen von one, body und thing:

no one niemand, some one, any one irgendeiner, every one jeder — nobody, not anybody niemand, somebody, anybody irgend jemand, everybody jeder — nothing, not anything nichts, something, anything irgend etwas, everything jedes, alles.

Alle übrigen sind **sowohl substantivisch als adjektivisch**:

all ganz, alle, alles — some, any etwas, einige — each jeder (einzelne aus einer beschränkten Anzahl) — either einer von beiden, jeder von beiden, neither keiner von beiden — both beide — much (Sing.) viel, many (Plur.) viele; little (Sing.) wenig; few (Plur.) wenige; a little ein wenig, a few einige, ein paar — several mehrere — other andere (another = 1. ein anderer 26, 8. — 2. noch ein 30, 18. Do not say another word kein Wort mehr!)

b) **any** und seine Zusammensetzungen stehen hauptsächlich in verneinenden, fragenden und bedingenden Sätzen; in bejahenden Sätzen bedeuten sie „irgend ein beliebiger“, „jeder einzelne, der nur“, „jeder nur denkbare“. (Anything jedes einzelne, das nur irgendwie = alles.)

some — any, § 32, 36—33, 8; 34, 9—11.

c) all adj. = ganz, all; Plur. alle; — subst. = alles, alle; all alles (insgesamt); everything alles (jedes einzelne). — all adverbial: ganz.

All Europe oder the whole of Europe; all the town = the whole town; all streets, all the streets of this town. All his money.

All manner of (allerlei) pretty colours. Many kinds (sorts) of trees. Various kinds of fruit. Three kinds of dreierlei.

Both my horses; both the girls oder the two girls. — Wir alle = We all oder all of us; you all, all of you; they all, all of them. — Wir beide = we both oder both of us [*gen.*: of us both = of both of us unſer beider; *dat.*: to us both = to both of us unſ beiden].

d) each = jeder einzelne aus einer beſchränkten oder beſtimmten Anzahl. Mr. V. gave each of them three fine books. Every boy is fond of playing (= alle Knaben); each of these boys; each boy of this class. — Every house has a roof; each of these houses has a red roof. — There are five fingers on each hand. — I paid fourpence halfpenny each for these cigars.

Statt each of us (you, them) ſagt man auch every one of us (you, them), wobei one betont wird.

Anm. Vor Zeit- und Raumbestimmungen wird „alle“ durch every überſetzt. That's how it is every morning (every day). — Every other day alle zwei Tage. Every two hours (miles) alle zwei Stunden (Meilen). — Every fortnight alle vierzehn Tage.

Das Eigenschaftswort. The Adjective.

§ 48. Das Adjektiv hat für alle Geſchlechter, Zahlen und Kasus dieſelbe Form. Es iſt nur der Steigerung fähig (31, 24; 52, 13).

Merke: Das Adj. other wird im Plural flektiert, jedoch nur, wenn es ſubſtantiviſch gebraucht wird: others andere; the others die anderen. Vgl. § 55e.

§ 49. Regelmäßige Steigerung.

a) broad breit, broader, broadest

wet naß, wetter, wettest — dry trocken, drier, driest
fine ſchön, finer, finest — free frei, freer, freest.

b) severe ſtreng, severer, severest — polite höflich, politer, politest — noble edel, nobler, noblest — heavy ſchwer, heavier, heaviest — pretty hübſch, prettier, prettiest.

c) intense heftig angeſpannt, more intense, most intense — recent modern, neu, more (most) recent — meagre mager, more (most) meagre — beautiful ſchön, more (most) beautiful — necessary notwendig, more (most) necessary — flattering ſchmeichelhaf, more (most) flattering — bent gebeugt, more (most) bent).

Auf deutsche Weise durch Anhängung von [e]r und [e]st werden gesteigert

a) alle einsilbigen Adj.;

b) von den zweisilbigen

1. diejenigen, welche auf der zweiten Silbe betont sind, falls diese einen langen Vokal enthält, —

2. die auf -le mit vorhergehendem Konsonanten — und

3. die auf -y mit vorherg. Konf. —

außerdem häufig noch: narrow, pleasant, handsome schön, clever, cruel (crueller, cruellest), bitter, common, wholesome gesundheitsfördernd.

c) Alle übrigen zweisilbigen, sowie alle mehrsilbigen Adjektive — und außerdem alle Partizipien, auch die einsilbigen — werden auf französische Weise durch Umschreibung mit more und most gesteigert.

Anm. Beachte a) die Schreibung (die orthographischen Eigentümlichkeiten) S. 42, 1; 42, 24. — b) die Aussprache: vor -er, -est

1. steht Vorderzungen-l: nobler, noblest, simpler, simplest u. a. haben Vorderzungen-l, während noble, simple u. a. Hintergaumen-t haben (5, 24; § 2).

2. r lautet konsonantisch (5, 32): clearer, dearer u. a. (mit konsonantischem Zungen spitzen-r), dagegen clear, dear (mit vokalischem r); vgl. § 6.

3. die drei Adjektive long, strong, young (die im Positiv einfachen Nasallaut ohne nachfolgendes g haben), werden im Komparativ und Superlativ mit lautem g (wie -ng- in finger, hunger, also mit yg) gesprochen: — Unterscheide: longest längster (mit lautem g) von thou longest du verlangst, sehnst dich (einfach mit y).

§ 50. Unregelmäßige Steigerung. good, better, best; — bad schlecht (evil, übel, schlimm, ill schlecht, krank), worse, worst; — little gering, wenig, less, least: — much viel (many viele), more, most; — far weit, fern, farther, further, farthest, furthest; — near, nahe, nearer, nearest, next; — late, later später, latter, letztere, latest spätest, last letzte; — old, older, elder, oldest, eldest.

Anm. 1. little in der Bedeutung 'klein' entlehnt seinen Komp. und Superl. meist von small oder auch von short (= klein von Wuchs und Gestalt).

Neben less findet sich nur attributivisch lesser: at a lesser price 70, 25. Lesser Asia = Asia Minor Kleinasien.

Anm. 2. little wenig, much viel stehen vor einem Wort im Singular, few wenige, many viele stehen vor einem Wort im Plur.; vgl. 41, 27.

few, fewer, fewest. no less than — no fewer than — no more than. What month has fewest days? Which month has fewer days, January or February?

Sehr viel a great deal of; sehr viele a great many; [a great many of sehr viele von.]

Ziemlich viel a good deal of; ziemlich viele a good many.

Sehr wenig very little, sehr wenige very few. A few einige wenige; ein paar; a little ein wenig, etwas, ein bißchen (41, 29 und § 47a).

Anm. 3. My next care will be to find out the nearest way to the next village. His nearest relation. — Next week; next day; next door nebenan. — nearest [am wenigsten entfernt] steht im räumlichen und bildlichen Sinne, — next [nächstfolgend] bezeichnet Zeit- und Reihenfolge.

Unterscheide: the nearest village und the next village.

Anm. 4. The eldest son of the Queen's eldest daughter. Jack is the elder of the two brothers. **My elder brother is six years older than I am.** The elder Pitt. — Elder, eldest dienen zur Unterscheidung von Personen derselben Familie; sie stehen meist attributiv, prädikativ nur in Verbindung mit dem Artikel. The smaller of the two sisters is the elder; the taller is the younger and nicer-looking.

Anm. 5. the former [sing. und plur.] der (die, das) erstere, die ersteren; celui-là, celle-là; ceux-là, celles-là — the latter [sing. und plur.] der (die, das) letztere, die letzteren; celui-ci, celle-ci, ceux-ci, celles-ci.

§ 51. Merkwürdig sind einige adjektivische Komparationsformen, die im Positiv als Adjektiv gar nicht vorkommen, und deren Superlativ mit — dem Suffix — most gebildet ist [das sprachgeschichtlich grundverschieden ist von dem Adverb most „meist“]: (in *adv.* hinein, drinnen), inner, inmost, — (out *adv.* außen), outer äußer, utter äußerst, utmost äußerst — (up *adv.* hinauf), upper ober, uppermost, — (fore vorder, vorne 3. B. fore-legs Vorderfüße), former 1. früher (dazu als *adv.*: formerly = französisch autrefois), 2. the former der erstere, foremost erst, bedeutendst, u. a.

§ 52. Vor dem Positiv heißt: sehr very, — zu too, — äußerst, höchst, überaus most, extremely, highly, exceedingly.

Vor dem Komparativ heißt: noch still, — viel much, — sehr viel a great deal, — ziemlich viel a good deal, — etwas a little oder somewhat, beträchtlich considerably, — weit far, bei weitem by far, — nicht no (zuweilen not), — je . . . desto the . . . the.

„Zimmer“ wird durch Verdoppelung des Komparativs ausgedrückt. Arkwright grew poorer and poorer 70, 42.

„Um so mehr als“ so much the more so as. „Um so besser“ so much the better.

Vor dem Superlativ auf -est wird 'aller' meist durch das Adj. very übersetzt (the very greatest difficulty); der allerbeste = the very best, the best of all, by far the best.

§ 53. Nach dem Komparativ heißt ‚als‘ than: Men are usually taller than women.

Anm. Gar nicht als Komparative empfindet der Engländer lateinische Formen wie superior, inferior, posterior, anterior, prior. Nach ihnen heißt „als“ — wie in den entsprechenden französischen Formen à, so im Englischen — to. Arkwright's yarns were far superior to other people's, they were inferior to nobody else's 71, 11.

Auch senior und junior gelten dem Engländer nicht als Komparative: he is my senior (junior) by three years = he is three years older than I (am).

§ 54. Vergleichungssätze: 1. There is not a more beautiful place than Greenhill Park anywhere 34, 35.

2. Australia is almost as large as Europe.

3. Australia is **not so large as** Europe (is less large than Europe).

4. **The more** the Scotch knew (kennen lernten) the English, **the less** they liked them. — § 64, 11.

So .. wie (ebenso .. wie) heißt as .. as, nicht so .. wie, not so .. as.

§ 55. Das substantivierte Adjektiv.

a) Das englische Adj. kann nur durch den bestimmten Artikel substantiviert werden. Das durch den bestimmten Artikel substantivierte Adjektiv bezeichnet

entweder das sächliche Abstraktum, jedoch nur in einigen stehenden Verbindungen, wie the good das Gute, the beautiful das Schöne, the sublime das Erhabene, the red das Rot, the dark das Dunkle, —

oder **die Gesamtheit** der durch das Adj. bezeichneten Personen: **the poor die Armen**, the rich die Reichen = die Armen, Reichen im allgemeinen, insgesamt, überhaupt.

Zur Bezeichnung einer einzelnen Person oder einer Mehrheit von einzelnen Personen tritt ein passender Gattungsname (man, woman, person, boy, girl, men, people u. a.) oder one, ones zu dem Adj. —

The poor man oder **the poor one der Arme** — a poor man oder a poor one ein Armer, a poor woman oder a poor one eine Arme.

Poor people oder poor persons Arme, some poor persons, some poor people; three poor ones, three poor people (men, women). Many poor people. All the poor people. — Unterscheide: the poor und the poor ones. — A one-eyed person. — A blind man (woman, person, boy, girl). — A single (unverheiratet) person; married people.

The dead die Toten, the wounded die Verwundeten, the oppressed die Bedrängten.

Something good = a good thing etwas Gutes; something else etwas Anderes.

Anm. Neutral ist auch die Bedeutung des substantivierten Superlativs einiger in besonderen Redewendungen vorkommender Adjektive: to do one's best; I'll do my best, my very best, my level best (81, 33); I worked my hardest = as hard as I could.

b) Ebenso bezeichnen **die** substantivierten **adjektivischen Völkernamen auf sh und ch** (the English, the Scotch, the Irish, the Welsh, the Dutch, the French) diese Völkerschaften in ihrer **Gesamtheit**.

Ein Engländer an Englishman, an English boy, eine Engländerin an English woman, an English lady, an English girl. — Einige Eng-

länder some Englishmen. — Zwei Engländer two Englishmen. — Engländer Englishmen oder English people.

Unterscheide: the English und the Englishmen.

Merke: Are you English? = are you an Englishman? an English lady?

c) Die **adjektivischen Völkernamen auf ss und se** erhalten, obwohl sie auch im Sing. substantivisch gebraucht werden, niemals das Pluralzeichen. Swiss schweizerisch; a Swiss, ein Schweizer, eine Schweizerin; she is a Swiss (lady). A Swiss cottage. The Swiss der, die Schweizer. Swiss people. — Portuguese, a Portuguese, the Portuguese. — Japanese. Chinese. Maltese. Viennese.

d) Mehrere eine Nation bezeichnende Adjektiva sind gleichzeitig Substantiva: German deutsch, a German, the Germans (Germany Deutschland). Prussian (Prussia Preußen); Bavarian — Bavaria, Saxon — Saxony; Wurttembergian — Wurttemberg, Alsatian — Alsatia, Hanoverian — Hanover, Brunswicker — Brunswick.

Austrian — Austria, Italian — Italy, Roman — Rome, Greek — Greece, Athenian — Athens, Briton — Britain, Russian — Russia, Belgian — Belgium.

European — Europe, Asiatic — Asia, African — Africa, American — America, Australian — Australia.

Merke: an inhabitant (a man) of [the grandduchy of] Baden; a Lorrainer, an inhabitant of [the Imperial Province of] Lorraine (jedoch Lorraine Isthingisch).

e) Viele Adj. sind völlig zu Subst. geworden: savage wild, a savage, savages; ebenso the natives, the whites, the blacks (= negroes, coloured people);

the ancients, the moderns (die modernen Völker), the nobles die Adligen.

the commons die Gemeinen, Nicht-Adligen = Mitglieder des englischen Unterhauses, — my equals meinesgleichen, my superiors meine Vorgesetzten u. a.

§ 56. Das attributive Adjektiv.

a) Attributiv kann das Adj. nicht ohne sein Subst. stehen; doch kann das unbestimmte Fürwort one, im Plur. ones, ein vorangegangenes Subst. vertreten. Please, sir, may I have a pen? — Do you want a soft one or a hard one? — Give me a clean knife and fork; you gave me dirty ones (32, 1; 52, 13; § 34, 1—2). This one dieser (vgl. § 44 b): many a one mancher; such a one ein solcher, no one keiner. — Their marriage was a most happy one eine äußerst glückliche.

Anm. Diese Vertretung des Subst. findet nicht statt

nach Zahlwörtern: the spinning-jenny enabled one person to spin as much as ten or twenty could do before (70, 11);

nach den von dem bestimmten Artikel begleiteten Steigerungsformen: I think this pen will do; it's the broadest there is. Thank you, this broad one will do very well, you could not think of a better one;

nach own in Verbindung mit einem Possessivpronomen: The hat I showed you this morning was not my own; vgl. § 43f.

in einigen stehenden Verbindungen: the Underground (erg. Railway), the Elevated, the Electric, a wireless (telegram) drahtloses u. a.

b) Die Namen von Städten, Personen und einigen Ländern, sowie die einen Stoff bezeichnenden Subst. werden oft als attributive Adj. gebraucht. Waterloo Station. Brooklyn Bridge. At the New York end 57, 26. Berlin wool Stiefwolle. India rubber Radiergummi. Japan ware japanische Lack- und andere Sachen.

A silver dollar, a silk dress, a stone bottle, an iron cage, a steel pen, a lead pencil Bleistift, cotton goods, cotton thread, a gold watch, prädikativisch: my watch is of gold, is a gold one.

Stets nur wooden hölzern, woollen wollen, earthen irden.

§ 57. Das prädikative Adjektiv.

a) Das prädikative Adjektiv (nicht das Adv.) steht

nach den Verben des Seins (sein, bleiben, scheinen, werden: to be — to remain, to continue — to appear, to seem — to become, to grow, to get, to turn),

sowie nach vielen intransitiven Verben

(nicht zur näheren Bestimmung der Tätigkeit des Verbs, sondern) zur Bezeichnung einer dem Subjekt zukommenden Eigenschaft.

To feel thirsty, hungry, sleepy, sad, sorry — to look graceful, nice, bad, good, funny — to live happy (oder happily) — to sit still — to keep quiet — to prove sich erweisen als (71, 7; 61, 30) — to taste sweet, bitter, sour, nice, good, bad — to smell fine, bad, nasty — to shine clear and bright — to fall dead — to lie dead — to die happy — to arrive safe and sound — to grow old ein hohes Alter erreichen, to be getting old allmählich alt und gebrechlich werden.

The milk has turned (become) sour.

Unterscheide: Happily he arrived und he arrived happy.

b) Zur Bezeichnung einer an dem Objekt durch ein transitives Verb hervorgerufenen Eigenschaft steht ebenfalls das prädikative Adj.

Leichhardt kept himself warm in his rug 59, 4. This made him happy 74, 37. He shot him dead.

c) Viele Adj. kommen nur prädikativ vor: afraid bange, ashamed beschämt, alive am Leben, lebendig, well gesund, wohl; ill krank, aghast entsetzt u. a. You ought to feel ashamed of yourself to waste your time so. — Are your parents still alive? — He does not look well, he is ill; he is a sick man; he is sick. — He stood aghast.

§ 58. **Zahlwörter. Numerals.**

Cardinal Numbers, Ordinal Numbers

One	first, 1 st	twenty	twentieth
two	second, 2 nd	twenty-one	twenty-first
three	third, 3 rd	twenty-two	twenty-second
four	fourth, 4 th	thirty	thirtieth
five	fifth, 5 th	forty	
six	sixth, 6 th	fifty	
seven		sixty	
eight	eighth	seventy	
nine	ninth	eighty	
ten		ninety	
eleven		a hundred	the hundredth
twelve	twelfth	one hundred and	the (one) hundred
thirteen		one	and first
fourteen		two hundred	the two hundredth
fifteen		a thousand	the thousandth
sixteen		a million	the millionth
seventeen		two million(s)	the two millionth
eighteen			
nineteen			

Bemerkung 1. Die Zahlen thirteen bis nineteen sind auf beiden Silben betont; folgt kein Subst. unmittelbar dahinter, so tritt die **zweite** Silbe etwas stärker hervor.

2. hundred, thousand und million haben in der Einheit stets a oder one vor sich: one muß stehen 1. wenn die Einheit betont wird, — 2. in einer Jahreszahl, wenn dieselbe durch das volle 'in the year' eingeleitet wird.

3. Folgt auf **hundred** und **thousand** eine Zahl, die kleiner ist als 100, so wird sie mit **and** angeknüpft. A leap year (Schalt-, eigentl.: Sprungjahr) has three hundred and sixty-six days, one day more than a common year.

4. Einzelne Zahlwörter können auch substantivisch gebraucht werden. What thousands of tons of steel had it required! 57, 16. Tens and hundreds Zehner und Hunderte.

5. million bleibt im Plural oft unverändert, oder es hat s und of hinter sich: London has about seven millions of inhabitants oder seven million inhabitants.

6. Statt twenty-one, twenty-first usw. sagt man zuweilen auch one-and-twenty, one-and-twentieth usw., doch ist diese Art zu zählen selten bei Zahlen über sixty.

7. Bei Zahlen über 1000 wird oft nach Hunderten gezählt: eleven hundred usw.

8. Null = **cipher** als Zahlenzeichen, als Ziffer; = **naught** als Zahlenwert; jedoch bei physikalischen Meßinstrumenten mit einer Grad-Skala gebraucht der Engländer den französischen Ausdruck **zero**: two hundred and twelve degrees above zero, one degree below zero.

9. arabishe (römische) Ziffern = Arabian (Roman) numerals.

§ 59. Zahladverbien. First, firstly, in the first place *erstens*; secondly, in the second place; thirdly, fourthly, fifthly . . .

once *einmal*, twice *zweimal*, three times (*thrice*), four times, a hundred times, a million times, millions of times; how many times? — As much (many) again. Twice (three times) as much (many). Once more, once again.

Einmaleins, Multiplication table. Once one is one. Twice one are two. Three times one are three . . . Four times four are sixteen. How many are seven times eight?

One and one are two. Two and three are five. How many are six and seven?

One from one leaves naught. One from two leaves one. Two from three leaves one. Two from four leaves two. What does three from nine leave?

One goes into one once. One goes into two twice. Two goes into six three times. How many times does three go into nine?

Sums to be done [= some arithmetical problems to be

solved]: — a) Convert into (Reduce to, Turn into) pence £ 2, 11 s. 7 d.; — b) Find the sum of: — five pounds two (shillings), four and six (pence), threepence halfpenny, twopence and a farthing; — c) How many minutes are contained (are there) in a week?

§ 60. Beim **Monatsdatum** steht die Ordnungszahl. What day of the month is it? What date is this? It is the 19th of July today. On the (am) twenty-fourth of May, on May the twenty-fourth; im letzteren Falle wird der Artikel meist nicht mitgeschrieben, stets aber mitgesprochen. In Briefen (37, 24): Aug. 3rd 09 oder August 3rd '09 (= 1909), oder 3 Aug(ust) 09 (sprich: [the] third of A.).

§ 61. Bei **Jahreszahlen** wird 'im Jahre' durch 'in', seltener durch 'in the year' übersetzt. Beim Sprechen bleiben dann die Wörter 'hundred and' zuweilen weg: in 1891 = in eighteen ninety-one = in (the year) eighteen hundred and ninety-one oder auch: in one thousand eight hundred and ninety-one; in ten sixty-six = in 1066.

Merke: in the fourties, fifties in den vierziger, fünfziger Jahren.

§ 62. Bei **Regentenzahlen** steht die Ordnungszahl. William the Second (häufiger William II. geschrieben).

§ 63. Überschriften: Sketch one, first Sketch; Sketch the first. Chapter one, usw. — Seiten- und Zeilenangaben: page twelve, line thirty-one; — line eight from the top, from the bottom.

§ 64. Alter. How old are you? I am thirteen (years old). I am entering on my fourteenth year; I was thirteen on my last birthday (last January). — How old do you think I am? I suppose

you may be about fourteen. — She is still in her teens (from thirteen to nineteen). — She is out of her teens (she is twenty or over twenty). She died at (the age of) seventeen.

§ 65. Bruchzahlen. a) Vulgar Fractions gemeine Brüche.

(the whole das Ganze), a (one) half $\frac{1}{2}$, a third $\frac{1}{3}$, two thirds $\frac{2}{3}$, a fourth (quarter) $\frac{1}{4}$, three fourths (quarter) $\frac{3}{4}$, five sixths $\frac{5}{6}$, seven eighths $\frac{7}{8}$, eleven sixtieths $\frac{11}{16}$; — a quarter of an hour, three quarters of an hour, one hour and a quarter, half an hour, one hour and a half, two hours and a half.

Merke: bei benannten Zahlen steht — außer nach half — hinter jeder Bruchzahl of: a third of a mile = $\frac{1}{3}$ Meile, two thirds of a mile [a third mile = eine dritte Meile]; aber half a mile (half ist Objektiv).

Viertel = fourth bei unbenannten Zahlen, quarter bei benannten.

b) Decimal Fractions, Dezimalbrüche, see page 57, footnote 2.

§ 66. Wieviel ist die Uhr? What time is it? (What's the time?) What o'clock is it (by your watch)? (By mine) it is twelve o'clock — ten minutes past twelve — a quarter past twelve — twenty minutes past twelve — half past twelve — it is [it wants] twenty-five minutes to one — a quarter to one — ten minutes to one.

Has the hour struck (voll geschlagen)? It is just striking one. Our school-clock strikes the hours, but not the halves and the quarters. — At noon precisely. Punctually at five. At twelve o'clock at night.

What time do you start? I start at four o'clock. The train goes (leaves, starts) at four twenty (at twenty minutes past four).

§ 67. Andere Zeit- und Maßangaben. To-day week, fortnight, month heute über 8, 14 Tage, 4 Wochen. Yesterday week, fortnight; a month yesterday gestern vor .. To-morrow week morgen über .. A week (a fortnight, a month) ago heute vor ..

Every day (year, week) alle Tage (Jahre ..); every other day oder every two days; every ten days. In a day or two in einigen Tagen.

A month vier Wochen, three months ein Vierteljahr, six months oder half a year; nine months $\frac{3}{4}$ Jahr, fifteen months oder a year and a quarter $\frac{5}{4}$ Jahr; a fortnight 14 Tage; a sennight (selten) = a week.

Das Zeitwort. The Verb.

§ 68. Das Englische unterscheidet vier Arten von Verben: 1. die schwachen Verben (weak verbs), die ihr Imperfekt mit Hilfe einer Anfügung bilden, — 2. die starken Verben (strong v.), die ohne Benutzung fremder Hilfe ihr Imperfekt durch Ablaut (Änderung des Stammvokals) bilden, — 3. die unregelmäßigen Verben (irregular or mixed verbs), — 4. die vollständigen und die unvollständigen Hilfsverben (auxiliary verbs, § 73. 75).

§ 69. Unter Konjugation versteht man die Bezeichnung der Zeit (des Tempus), der Aussage- oder Redeweise (des Modus), der Zahl (des Numerus), der Person und der Zustandsform (d. h. des Aktivs oder der Tätigkeitsform und des Passivs oder der Leideform: active voice, passive voice).

a) Die englische Konjugation hat **acht finite Formen** (finite forms) oder Personalformen (das Präsens, das Imperfekt, das I. Futur, das I. Konditional, das Perfekt, das Plusquamperfekt, das II. Futur und das II. Konditional) und **drei infinite** (infinitival, non-finite) **Formen** oder Nominalformen.

Von den letzteren sind der Infinitiv und das Gerundium Verbal-
j u b s t a n t i v e, während die Partizipien Verbaladjektive sind.

b) Mit Ausnahme des Hilfsverbs to be sowie der 3. Pers. Sing. Präs. haben der Konjunktiv und der Imperativ die Formen des Indikativs.

Der **Indikativ** — die bestimmte Redeweise (Ausdruck der Wirklichkeit) — hat acht Zeiten, zwei einfache (Präs. und Imperf.: simple tenses) und sechs zusammengesetzte (compound tenses).

Der **Konjunktiv** — die unbestimmte Redeweise (Ausdruck der Vorstellung) — hat vier Zeiten: Präs. Impf., Perf. und Plusqpf.

Der **Imperativ** — die befehlende Redeweise (Ausdruck der Aufforderung) — hat nur eine einfache Form, die zur Bezeichnung der 2. Pers. sowohl des Sing. als des Plur. dient. — Zusammengesetzte Formen werden mit dem Imperativ let und nachfolgendem Infinitiv gebildet:

1. *si.* = let me speak, — 3. *si.* = let him (her, it) speak, — 1. *plur.* = let us speak, — 3. *plur.* = let them speak.

Dem Englischen eigentümlich ist der Imperativ der Vergangenheit in einigen Redensarten, z. B. have done hör auf! genug! Have done crying flenne (weine) nicht mehr! — Be gone schere dich weg!

c) **Futur und Konditional** werden mit dem Präs. und dem Impf. von shall und will und nachfolgendem Infinitiv in der Art gebildet, daß **shall in der 1., will in der 2. und 3. Pers.** steht. Nur in der Frage werden auch die 2. Personen mit shall und should zusammengesetzt. — Wiederhole 36, 18—27.

d) Das Perfekt und die übrigen zusammengesetzten Zeiten aller Verben, auch der intransitiven, werden mit to have und dem Part. Perf. gebildet: it [= the sponge] has dropped down — he has gone — I have come — they had landed — we had arrived — the sun had set (had risen) — the two had escaped — she had died — he has fled — they had returned.

Veraltet — oder im Veralten begriffen — sind Ausdrücke wie to be come da sein, to be returned zurück sein; doch sagt man noch: is (are) gone ist (sind) fort. — Die früher für die intransitiven Verben geltende Regel — to have sei zu setzen, wenn die Tätigkeit, to be, wenn das Ergebnis der Tätigkeit, der durch die Tätigkeit bewirkte Zustand betont werden solle — wird von neueren Schriftstellern kaum noch je beobachtet.

e) Das englische schwache Verb hat drei **lebende** und drei **archaische** (abgestorbene) **Biegungsendungen**; das starke Verb hat zwei lebende und drei abgestorbene Biegungsendungen:

Biegungsendungen des **schwachen** Verbs: 1. **-s** = Endung der 3. si. ind. pres. — 2. **-ing** = partic. pres. — 3. **-ed** = ipf.

[4. **-est** = 2. si. ind. pres. — 5. **-edst** = 2. si. ind. ipf. — 6. **-eth** = 3. si. ind. pres.];

des **starken** Verbs: 1. **-s** = 3. si. ind. pres. — 2. **-ing** = partic. pres. [3. **-est** = 2. si. ind. pres. — 4. **-(e)st** = 2. si. ind. ipf. — 5. **-eth** = 3. si. ind. pres.].

Anm. 1. Die Endung **-s** lautet 1. **iz** nach den Zischlauten (§ 4), — 2. **s** (**stimmlos**) nach den stimmlosen Konsonanten p, f, t, th (= þ), k, — 3. **z** (**stimmhaft**) in allen anderen Fällen; vgl. 8, 32; 8, 26.

Statt **s** tritt der Aussprache gemäß **hinter Zischlauten**, die nicht ein stummes **e** hinter sich haben, **-es** ein (41, 32; § 26).

-es statt **-s** — aber mit der Aussprache eines einfachen stimmhaften **s** — steht auch in: he goes, he does (41, 36), he tries, he carries usw. (41, 38).

Anm. 2. Die abgestorbenen Biegungsendungen gehören der älteren Sprache an (varieth 66, 2 Sprache Caxton's = 15. Jahrhundert). Sie werden noch heute gebraucht in der altertümlichen Sprache der Dichtung und der Kirche, die der 2. si. auch zuweilen noch in der Umgangssprache der Quäker unter sich; vgl. § 40.

Anm. 3. Das present participle wird gebildet durch Anhängung von **-ing** (gesprochen **-in** ohne Nachklang 8, 18) an den infinitive. Hierzu 6 Bemerkungen; 3 die Schreibung, 3 die Aussprache betreffend:

1. ein am Ende stehendes stummes **-e** fällt aus (42, 4);
2. **-ie** wird **y** (42, 8);
3. einfacher Endkonsonant wird in einigen Fällen (42, 9) verdoppelt;
4. vokalisches **r** wird vor **-in** zu Zungenspitzen-**r** (§ 6, 5 und 6);
5. Hintergaumen-**t** wird vor **-in** zu Vorderzungen-**l** (5, 25 und § 2);
6. die Verben auf **-ng**, in denen **-ng** den einfachen (englischen) Nasallaut [ohne Nachklang von **g** oder **k**] bezeichnet, verändern vor **-in** ihren Endlaut nicht.

[Zu Bem. 1.] Ausgenommen ist shoeing beschuhend von to shoe § 70 d.

[Zu Bem. 2.] to vie wettsiefen: vying; to lie lügen: lying; to lie liegen: lying [to lay legen: laying]; to tie binden: tying; to die sterben: dying.

Merke: dyeing von to dye färben. — ying ist selbstverständlich in den Verben auf **-y**, z. B. to fly fliegen: flying [to flee fliehen: fleeing].

[Zu Bem. 3.] dropping, shopping, getting, referring, forbidding, occurring (42, 16—19). — Hierzu gehören die Verben auf **-ic** sowie die Verben auf **-l**, **-p**, **-t** (wenn diesen **-l**, **-p**, **-t** ein durch einen einzigen Buchstaben bezeichneter — einfacher oder diphthongischer — Vokal vorangeht), z. B. trafficking Handel treibend, travelling, worshipping, rivetting vernietetend, controlling überwachend (siehe § 70 c).

[Zu Bem. 4.] acquiring, pouring, preferring, occurring, offering usw. mit Zungenspitzen-**r**, aber mit vokalischem **r** to acquire, to pour gießen, to prefer, to occur, to offer usw.

[Zu Bem. 5.] to fall, to travel usw. mit Hintergaumen-**t**; aber falling, travelling usw. mit Vorderzungen-**l**.

[Zu Bem. 6.] to sing: singing singen, beide einfach mit *ŋ* (nicht mit *ng*), ebenso die Ableitung singer Sänger (einfach *ŋ*); dahingegen haben lautes *g* mit vorangegehendem Nasallaute [also *ng*]; finger, hunger, longer, stronger, younger [§ 49 U.]. — Ganz anders natürlich to singe: singeing versengen (beide mit *-ndž*).

f) Paradigma der Abwandlung des schwachen und des starken Zeitworts.

Das schwache Verb:

Das starke Verb:

A. Finite Formen.

a) Indikative:

1. Präsens.

I call ich rufe
you call
he (she, it, one) calls
we call
you call
they call

I speak ich spreche
you speak
he (she, it, one) speaks
we speak
you speak
they speak

2. Imperfekt.

I (you, he, we, you, they) called I (you, he, we, you, they) spoke

3. Futur I.

I shall call
you (he) will call
we shall call
you (they) will call

I shall speak
you (he) will speak
we shall speak
you (they) will speak

4. Konditional I.

I should call
you (he) would call
we should call
you (they) would call

I should speak
you (he) would speak
we should speak
you (they) would speak

5. Perfekt.

I (you) have called
he has called
we (you, they) have called

I (you) have spoken
he has spoken
we (you, they) have spoken

6. Plusquamperfekt.

I (you, he, we, you, they) had called I (you, he, we, you, they) had spoken

7. Futur II.

I shall have called
 you (he) will have called
 we shall have called
 you (they) will have called

I shall have spoken
 you (he) will have spoken
 we shall have spoken
 you (they) will have spoken

8. Conditional II.

I should have called
 you (he) would have called
 we should have called
 you (they) would have called

I should have spoken
 you (he) would have spoken
 we should have spoken
 you (they) would have spoken

Abgestorbene (archaische) Formen:

he calleth
 thou callest, calledst

he speaketh
 thou speakest, spokest.

b) Konjunktive wie die Indikative, außer:

he call er rufe
 he have called er habe gerufen

he speak er spreche
 he have spoken er habe gesprochen

Abgestorbene (obsolete) Formen:

thou call du rufest

thou speak du sprichst,

c) Imperativ:

call rufe, rufen Sie
 rufet, rufen Sie

speak sprich, sprechen Sie
 sprecht, sprechen Sie

B. Infinitive Formen.

1. Infinitive.

Inf. des Präsens to call rufen (zu
 rufen, um zu rufen)

to speak sprechen (zu sprechen, um
 zu sprechen)

Inf. des Perfekts to have called
 gerufen (zu) haben

to have spoken gesprochen (zu)
 haben

2. Partizipien.

Part. des Präsens calling rufend
 (Einfaches) Part. des Perf. called
 gerufen

speaking sprechend
 spoken gesprochen

Zusammengesetztes Part. des Perf.
 having called gerufen habend

having spoken gesprochen habend

3. Gerundien.

Gerundium des Präsens: calling
 (das) Rufen

speaking (das) Sprechen

Ger. des Perfekts: having called
 (das) Gerufenhaben

having spoken (das) Gesprochen-
 haben.

§ 70. a) Die Endung **-ed** der **schwachen** Verben lautet 1. *id* nach *t* und *d*, 2. *d* nach stimmhaftem Auslaut (außer nach *d*), 3. *t* nach stimmlosem Auslaut (außer nach *t*); vgl. 29, 38.

Als Adjektiv-Endung bildet **-ed** eine deutlich hörbare Silbe: *beloved* (3 silbig) beliebt, *loved* (2 silbig) geliebt, *crooked* (2 silbig) krumm, *naked*, nackt, *rugged* rau, *wicked* schlecht, *wretched* elend. Daher wird auch in Partizipien, die zu Adjektiven geworden sind, **-ed** als volle Silbe gesprochen: *learned* als *part.* (1 silbig) gelernt, als *adj.* (2 silbig) gelehrt (*savant*) — *blessed* als *part.* (1 silbig) gesegnet, als *adj.* (2 silbig) selig (verwünscht) — *cursed* als *part.* (1 silbig) gesucht, als *adj.* (2 silbig) verflucht.

Nur *fixed* (*part.* befestigt, *adj.* fest) ist stets einsilbig.

Anm. In dem Suffix **-ed**, mit welchem Adjektive aus Substantiven gebildet werden, lautet — genau wie bei den Partizipien — *e* nur nach *t* und *d*; also = *id* in *wooded* waldig (*wood* Holz, Gehölz), *Richard the Lion-hearted* Löwenherz, — = *d* in *blue-eyed* blauäugig, usw. — Tennyson calls Milton: 'the mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies, god-gifted organ-voice of England.'

b) Die Verben der ersten Klasse behalten — abgesehen von einigen orthographischen Eigentümlichkeiten bei einzelnen Verben — den Präsensstamm im Impf. bei; bei den Verben der zweiten Klasse tritt eine Änderung des Präsensstammes ein.

c) Die Verben der Klasse I^a hängen **-ed** (nach Vokalen **-d**) an den Präsensstamm.

Orthographische Eigentümlichkeiten: 42, 1—10; 51, 16. Besonders zu beachten:

1. die Verben auf **-ic** sowie die Verben auf **-l, p, -t** (wenn diesem **-l, -p, -t** ein durch einen einzigen Buchstaben bezeichneter — einfacher oder diphthongischer — Vokal vorangeht); sie verdoppeln vor **-ed** und **-ing** ihren Endkonsonanten, wobei statt *cc* stets *ck* geschrieben wird: *to traffic*, (he *traffics*; *trafficked*, *trafficking*; *trafficker* Handelsmann) *to quarrel* sich zanken (*quarreller* Händelsucher), *to jewel* mit Juwelen schmücken (*jewelled* 56, 2, *jeweller* Juwelier), *to equal* gleichkommen (*equalled*, *equalling*), *to control* überwachen (*controls*, *controlled*, *controlling*; *controller* Aufseher, *controllable* lenksam, — *to worship* anbeten (*he worships*; *worshipped*, *worshipping*; *worshipper*) — *to rivet* vernieten —

aber keine Verdoppelung in *to fail* fehlschlagen, *to head* (an expedition) an der Spitze stehen von.

2. diejenigen Verben, die im Impf. und Part. Perf. *t* neben *d* schreiben: *to burn* brennen, *burnt* oder *burned*; *to learn* lernen, *learnt* *learned*; *to dwell* verweilen, wohnen, *dwelt* *dwelled*, *to smell* riechen, *to spell* buchstabieren, *to spill* verschütten, vergießen, *to spoil* berauben, ver- wüsten, verderben; *to dip* eintauchen, *to pen* einpferchen.

3. die Verben *to lay* (legen) und *to pay* (bezahlen): *laid*, *laid*, — *paid*, *paid*.

Beachte: *paid* bezahlte — *played* spielte.

d) Die Verben der Klasse II^a verwandeln ihr auslautendes d nach einem Konsonanten stets in t:

nd	nt	nt	to bend	bent	bent	biegen
			to lend	lent	lent	ausleihen
			to rend	rent	rent	zerreißen
			to send	sent	sent	senden
			to spend	spent	spent	ausgeben
t	tt	tt	to build	built	built	bauen

Klasse II^b umfaßt die Verben, welche ihr Impf. auf d oder t mit gleichzeitigem Vokalwechsel bilden:

īr	ōr	ōr	to hear	heard	heard	hören
e	ōu	ōu	to tell	told	told	erzählen, sagen
			to sell	sold	sold	verkaufen
ū	o	o	to shoe	shod	shod	(Pferde) beschlagen
ēi	e	e	to say	said	said	sagen

Auch die 3. si. pres. ind. von to say hat Vokalwechsel: says (sez).

ī	e	e	to flee	fled	fled	fliehen
			to creep	crept	crept	kriechen
			to keep	kept	kept	halten
			to sleep	slept	slept	schlafen
			to weep	wept	wept	weinen
			to sweep	swept	swept	fegen
			to deal	dealt	dealt	austeilen, handeln
			to feel	felt	felt	fühlen
			to mean	meant	meant	bedeuten, beabsichtigen
			to kneel	knelt	knelt	knien
			to cleave	cleft	cleft	spalten
			to leave	left	left	verlassen
			to leap	lept	lept	springen
			to dream	dreamt	dreamt	träumen
			to lean	leant	leant	lehnen

Häufiger als lept ist leaped (ī); neben dreamt (e) und leant (e) stehen dreamed (ī) und leaned (ī).

ū	o	o	to lose	lost	lost	verlieren
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Das Verb to lose hat stimmhaftes s und nur ein o; zwei o und ein stimmloses s hat das Adjektiv loose lose, locker: the loose sheets of a book (unbound, not fixed); loose money Kleingeld (wofür häufiger: small coin, small change oder einfach change).

āi	ō	ō	to buy	bought	bought	kaufen
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Merke: he buys.

II^c enthält diejenigen Verben, deren Präsensstamm im Impf. nicht nur einen Vokalwechsel, sondern auch die Ausstoßung des auslautenden Stammkonsonanten erleidet:

<i>ēi</i>	<i>ēi</i>	<i>ēi</i>	to make	made	made	machen
<i>i</i>	<i>ō</i>	<i>ō</i>	to bring	brought	brought	(her)bringen
			to think	thought	thought	denken
<i>ī</i>	<i>ō</i>	<i>ō</i>	to seek	sought	sought	suchen
			to beseech	besought	besought	anflehen
			to teach	taught	taught	lehren
<i>æ</i>	<i>ō</i>	<i>ō</i>	to catch	caught	caught	fangen
<i>ōr</i>	<i>ō</i>	<i>ō</i>	to work	wrought	wrought	(Metall) verarbeiten

wrought iron = forged iron Schmiedeeisen (cast-iron Gußeisen) — to work arbeiten hat worked, worked.

§ 71. Die starken Verben, die ihr Impf. und Partiz. des Perf. durch **Ablaut** (Lautwechsel des Stammvokals) bilden, zerfallen in Verben, welche die ursprüngliche Endung des Part. Perf. -en (gesprochen n, und oft auch nur so geschrieben) noch beibehalten oder bereits verloren haben.

I. Klasse: Verben mit e oder en im Partizip des Perfekts.

a) mit ungleichen Vokalen im Impf. und Part. Perf.

<i>āi</i>	<i>ōu</i>	<i>i</i>	to drive	drove	driven	treiben
			to strive	strove	striven	streben
			to thrive	throve	thriven	gedeihen
			to ride	rode	ridden	reiten
			to rise	rose	risen	sich erheben
			to arise	arose	arisen	sich erheben
			to stride	strode	stridden	schreiten
			to smite	smote	smitten	schlagen
			to write	wrote	written	schreiben
<i>ēi</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ēi</i>	to forsake	forsook	forsaken	im Stich lassen
			to shake	shook	shaken	schütteln
			to take	took	taken	nehmen, hinbringen
<i>ou</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ōu</i>	to blow	blew	blown	blasen
			to grow	grew	grown	wachsen
			to throw	threw	thrown	werfen
<i>ōu</i>	<i>jū</i>	<i>ōu</i>	to know	knew	known	wissen
<i>ō</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ō</i>	to draw	drew	drawn	ziehen
<i>ēi</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ēi</i>	to slay	slew	slain	erschlagen
<i>āi</i>	<i>ū</i>	<i>ōu</i>	to fly	flew	flown	fliegen, fliegen lassen
			to fly	fliegen	to flee	fliehen (§ 70d) — to flow
<i>ō</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ō</i>	to fall	fell	fallen	fallen
<i>ī</i>	<i>ō</i>	<i>ī</i>	to see	saw	seen	sehen
<i>ī</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ī</i>	to eat	eat oder ate	eaten	essen
<i>i</i>	<i>æ</i>	<i>i</i>	to bid	bade	bidden	heißen, gebieten
<i>i</i>	<i>ēi</i>	<i>i</i>	to give	gave	given	geben

b) mit gleichen Vokalen im Impf. und Part. Perf.

ēi	ōu	ōu	to break	broke	broken	brechen
ī	ōu	ōu	to freeze	froze	frozen	gefrieren
			it freezes es friert; mich friert = I feel cold (chilly), I am cold.			
			to speak	spoke	spoken	sprechen
			to bespeak	bespoke	bespoke(n)	bestellen

a bespoke tailor Schneider, der nur auf Maß, auf Bestellung (nicht auf Vorrat) arbeitet; bespoke department Abteilung für Anzüge, zu denen Maß genommen wird und die anprobiert werden; bespoke trade Maßgeschäft.

ī	ōu	ōu	to steal	stole	stolen	stehlen
			to weave	wove	woven	weben
ū	ōu	ōu	to choose	chose	chosen	wählen
ēor	ōr	ōr	to bear	bore	borne	ertragen
			forbear	forbore	forborne	unterlassen

to bear heißt auch 'gebären'. 'Geboren' im Sinne von 'zur Welt gekommen' = born (ohne e): to be born; jedoch 'geboren' im Sinne von '(hat) zur Welt gebracht' (aktivisch), sowie (passivisch) im Sinne von '(ist zur Welt gebracht worden von' = borne, borne by; to have borne, to have been borne by. Beispiele: when were you born? I was born August 15th 1906 (on the fifteenth of August nineteen [hundred and] six); — aber: his second wife has borne him three children; the three children borne to him by his s. wife (see The Oxford Eng. Dict. 733, 44).

ēor	ōr	ōr	to swear	swore	sworn	schwören
			to tear	tore	torn	zerreißen
			to wear	wore	worn	Kleider (tragen)

īor	ōr	ōr	to shear	shore	shorn	scheren
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ūi	ēi	ēi	to lie	lay	lain	liegen
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to lie down sich legen; to lay (legen laid, laid) ist schwach § 70 c.

āi	i	i	to hide	hid	hidden	verbergen
			to chide	chid	chidden	ausschelten

to chide ist veraltet: man sagt jetzt meist to scold,

			to bite	bit	bitten	beißen
ī	ī	ī	to beat	beat	beaten	schlagen
e	o	o	to tread	trod	trodden	treten
			to beget	begot	begotten	erzeugen
			to forget	forgot	forgotten	vergessen

Umgangssprache: I forget (what he is called) ich entsinne mich nicht mehr: ich habe vergessen (wie er heißt), § 85; daneben oft auch: I have forgotten.

II. Klasse: Verben mit Schwund des -en im Part. Perf.

a) Ungleiche Vokale im Impf. und Part. Perf.

i	æ	o	to begin	began	begun	beginnen
			to drink	drank	drunk	trinken

drunk ist auch Adjektiv, jedoch nur prädikativ (he is drunk stark betrunken, besoffen; tipsy angeheitert). Attributiv ist drunken: a drunken man ein Betrunkener.

<i>i</i>	<i>æ</i>	<i>v</i>	to ring	rang	rung	flingeln
			to sing	sang	sung	singen
			to sink	sank	sunk	sinken
			to shrink	shrank	shrunk	einschrumpfen
			to stink	stank	stunk	stinken
			to spring	sprang	sprung	springen
			to swim	swam	swum	schwimmen
<i>v</i>	<i>æ</i>	<i>v</i>	to run	ran	run	laufen
<i>v</i>	<i>ē</i>	<i>v</i>	to come	came	come	kommen

b) Gleiche Vokale im Impf. und Part. Perf.

<i>i</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>v</i>	to dig	dug	dug	graben
			to stick	stuck	stuck	stecken
			to spin	spun	spun	spinnen
			to win	won	won	gewinnen
			to hang	hung	hung	hängen
			to cling	clung	clung	sich an-schmiegen
			to fling	flung	flung	schleudern
			to sling	slung	slung	mit einer Schlinge werfen
			to sting	stung	stung	stechen
			to string	strung	strung	befaiten
			to swing	swung	swung	schwingen
			to wring	wrung	wrung	auswringen (11, 30)
<i>ā</i>	<i>ā^u</i>	<i>ā^u</i>	to bind	bound	bound	binden
			to find	found	found	finden
			to grind	ground	ground	mahlen
			to wind	wound	wound	winden
<i>ā</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>i</i>	to light	lit	lit	anzünden

neben lit (*i*) oft auch lighted (*ā*).

<i>ā</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>v</i>	to strike	struck	struck	schlagen
<i>ā</i>	<i>ō^u</i>	<i>ō^u</i>	to abide	abode	abode	weilen, abwarten
<i>ō^u</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	to hold	held	held	halten
			to behold	beheld	beheld	erblicken
<i>ī</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	to bleed	bled	bled	bluten
			to breed	bred	bred	brüten, aufziehen

well (ill) bred gut (schlecht) erzogen.

<i>ī</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	to feed	fed	fed	füttern
			to speed	sped	sped	eilen
			to lead	led	led	leiten, führen
			to meet	met	met	begegnen

i	e	e	to read	read	read	lesen
i	æ	æ	to sit	sat	sat	sitzen
			to spit	spat	spat	speien
e	ɔ	ɔ	to get	got	got	bekommen, werden

Das ältere Partizip gotten findet sich noch in Zusammensetzungen: an ill-gotten fortune unredlich erworbenes Vermögen.

			to shine	shone	shone	schienen
u	ɔ	ɔ	to shoot	shot	shot	schießen
ā	ō	ō	to fight	fought	fought	fechten, kämpfen
æ	u	u	to stand	stood	stood	stehen
e	e	e	to spread	spread	spered	ausbreiten
ār	ār	ār	to burst	burst	burst	bersten
			to hurt	hurt	hurt	weh tun, verletzen
v	v	v	to thrust	thrust	thrust	stoßen
i	i	i	to hit	hit	hit	treffen
v	v	v	to shut	shut	shut	schließen
			to cut	cut	cut	schneiden
ā	ā	ā	to cast	cast	cast	werfen
ɔ	ɔ	ɔ	to cost	cost	cost	kosten
u	u	u	to put	put	put	stellen
e	e	e	to set	set	set	setzen
			to let	let	let	lassen
			to shed	shed	shed	vergießen
i	i	i	to rid	rid	rid	befreien

rid of befreit (los) von; to get rid of los werden.

i	i	i	to split	split	split	spalten
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§ 72. Unregelmäßig (irregular: Verbs with a mixed conjugation) sind

ē	ō	ē	to awake	awoke	awaked	aufwachen
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awake ist auch Adjektiv: wach, schon munter; to be (broad) awake (völlig) wach sein, wachen. — Wachen heißt (to wake, waked, waked oder häufiger noch) to call (= rufen).

ē	ār	ē	to dare	[durst], dared	dared	dürfen, wagen
ō	ō	ō	to show	showed	shown	zeigen (§ 75c A. 4.)
			to sow	sowed	sown	säen
			to sew	sewed	sewed, sewn	nähen
ō	ō	ō	to saw	sawed	sawed, sawn	sägen
ō	ō	ō	to mow	mowed	mown	mähen
hjuhjudhjan			to hew	hewed	hewn	behauen (6, 30)

<i>ū</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ū</i>	to strew	strewed	strewn, strewed	streuen
<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>ōu</i>	to swell	swelled	swollen, swelled	schwellen
			to shred	shred(ded)	shred(ded)	zerschneiden
<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	to sweat	sweat(ed)	sweated	schwitzen

In bezug auf Menschen gilt als feiner to perspire 'transpirieren' (perspiration Schweiß). Merke: sweater (ea = *ē*) Sport-Wollwams.

<i>ōu</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>o</i>	to go	went	gone	gehen
<i>ū</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>v</i>	to do	did	done	tun

to do = tun, machen [to make = verfertigen]; — that will do das paßt hier, eignet sich gerade sehr gut; das genügt; — how do you do? 13, 29.

Merke: he goes (= *ōu*); he does (= *v*). Abgestorbene Formen: thou doest (*ū*), dost (*v*); he doeth (*ū*), doth (*v*). Verkürzte Formen: don't = do not, doesn't = does not, didn't = did not. — went ist eigentlich ein altes Imperfekt von dem Verb to wend, das heutzutage besonders in der Redensart to wend one's way (79, 36) vorkommt, jetzt aber wended, wended bildet.

§ 73. Die Hilfsverben dienen zur Bildung der zusammengesetzten Zeiten des Verbs oder zur Bezeichnung des Modus. — Es gibt vollständige Hilfsverben: to have, to be — und unvollständige (defektive) oder modale Hilfsverben (Hilfsverben der Ausdrucksweise); I can, I may, I shall, I will, I must, I ought to; vgl. 44, 30 und (§ 75 c. A. 4).

Bemerkung: Modale Hilfsverben sind Hilfsverben, die ein Modusverhältnis Möglichkeit, Wirklichkeit oder Notwendigkeit der Aussage) ausdrücken.

Anm. Die Hilfsverben werden, ebenso wie to do, elliptisch gebraucht

1. zur Vermeidung eines nackten yes oder no in Antworten, in denen das Verb der Frage zu ergänzen ist. Beispiele 41, 15 vgl. § 41 d; —
2. zur Wiedergabe des deutschen 'nicht wahr?' We get to Barnet about twelve, don't we?

You feel sleepy; do you not? You don't feel sleepy; do you? —

You are not sleepy; are you? You are sleepy; are you not? —

The bell has rung (has been ringing); has it not? Yes, sir, it has.

§ 74. To have haben to be sein

Finite Forms.

a) The Indicative Mood.

1. Present (tense).

I have, you have
he (she, it, one) has
we (you, they) have

I am, you are
he is
we (you, they) are.

2. [Preterite or] Past (tense).

I (you) had
he (we, you, they) had

I was, you were
he was
we (you, they) were

3. First Future.

I shall have
 you (he) will have
 we shall have
 you (they) will have

I shall be
 you (he) will be
 we shall be
 you (they) will be.

4. First Conditional.

I should have
 you (he) would have
 we should have
 you (they) would have

I should be
 you (he) would be
 we should be
 you (they) would be.

5. Perfect.

I (you) have had
 he has had
 we (you, they) have had

I (you) have been
 he has been
 we (you, they) have been.

6. Pluperfect.

I (you, he, we, you, they) had
 had

I (you, he, we, you, they) had
 been.

7. Second Future.

I shall have had
 you (he) will have had
 we shall have had
 you (they) will have had

I shall have been
 you (he) will have been
 we shall have been
 you (they) will have been.

8. Second Conditional.

I should have had
 you (he) would have had
 we should have had
 you (they) would have had

I should have been
 you (he) would have been
 we should have been
 you (they) would have been.

Obsolete (or archaic) Forms:

he hath er ȝat

thou hast, thou hadst

thou art, wast.

b) The **Subjunctive Mood** is conjugated as the Indicative, with the exception of the following forms:

he have er ȝaȝe

I (you, he, we, you, they) be

I (you, he, we, you, they) were.

Obsolete Forms:

thou have du habest

thou be du seiest, thou wert wärest.

c) The Imperative Mood.

have habe, haben Sie
habet, haben Siebe sei, seien Sie
seid, seien Sie

B. Infinitival [non-Finite] Forms.

1. Infinitives.

Pres. Inf. to have (zu) haben

to be (zu) sein

Perf. Inf. to have had gehabt (zu)
haben

to have been gewesen (zu) sein.

2. Participles.

Pres. Part. having habend

being seiend

Past Part. having had gehabt
habend

having been gewesen seiend.

3. Gerund.

being (daß) Sein

having been (daß) Gewesen sein.

Ann. Betonung im Deutschen: oft = ich habe, du hast, er hat, . . . ich bin, du bist, . . . Im Englischen haben have, am . . . nur selten den Ton [§ 73 A. 1], meist sind sie unbetont (Schwachstufig 12, 1): *ai'hæv*, *ai'əm* (13, 1). So erklären sich die häufigen Verkürzungen, — von to have: 've = have (I 've, we 've usw.), 's = has, — von to be: 'm (I 'm), 're (you 're, we 're usw.), 's = is. — Ähnlich I'd = I had, I'll have = I shall (oder will) have.

§ 75. Die unvollständigen (defektiven) Hilfsverben sind eigentlich Präterito-Präsentia und haben daher in der 3. si. kein -s.

Präsens

Imperfektum

I can ich kann, bin imstande

I could

I may ich mag, kann, darf

I might

I shall ich soll

I should

I will ich will

I would

I must ich muß

(I must selten)

I ought to ich sollte.

Auch I need ich brauche, I dare ich wage werden oft als Hilfsverben gebraucht. Als solche haben sie in der 3. si. pres. kein -s: he need not — he dare not — dare he? (§ 75 c. A. 4).

Abgestorbene Formen: thou canst, may(e)st, shalt, wilt, must, ought(e)st, couldst usw.

Merke: can't = cannot 44, 33; shan't = shall not; won't = will not; couldn't = could not; usw. — Wiederhole: 44, 31—45, 16.

a) Von den unvollständigen Hilfsverben gelten drei Hauptregeln:

1. sie haben weder Infinitive noch Partizipien und nur die vier ersten haben für Präs. und Impf. besondere Formen;
2. sie haben nie ein Akkusativobjekt bei sich;
3. das in konditionalem Sinne gebrauchte deutsche Plusqpf. des Konjunktivs mit nachfolgendem Infinitiv des Präsens wird im Englischen übersetzt durch das **Impf.** mit nachfolgendem **Inf. Perf.**

Ich hätte es tun können: I could (might) have done it.

Ich hätte es tun sollen: I should (ought to) have done it.

§ 30, 21; 55, 27.

Anm. 1. Alle fehlenden Formen — also auch die des Infinitivs und des Futurs — werden durch andere, dem Sinne nach passende Verben ersetzt. Es ergänzt sich

I can durch to be able, not to be able, to be unable.

I may durch to be allowed (permitted); not to be a. (p.), to be forbidden.

I will durch to want, to wish, to desire; to have a mind; to be willing, unwilling, to mean, to intend; to like.

I must durch to be bound, obliged, forced, compelled oder to have to (§ 80).

Anm. 2. Zur Wiedergabe deutscher Wendungen wie **„Ich kann es nicht“**, **„ich will es nicht“**, bedient man sich entweder eines anderen Verbs, oder man fügt dem Hilfsverb einen passenden Infinitiv hinzu: **I cannot do it**; I will not have it (do it). — I do not like monkeys ich mag keine Affen. — What do you want? Was willst du? — There is a man who wants to speak to you (der zu Ihnen will). What does he want? What can I do for him?

Anm. 3. Können = gelernt haben, wird entweder mit I can und einem passenden Infinitiv oder einfach durch to know übersetzt: Bob knew his lesson well when he had to say it off. — Do you know English? Can you speak (read, write, understand) English? § 59, 22.

b) Wiederhole § 69 c und 36, 18—27. — 2. Merke: I will kann in allen Personen des Präsens und Impf. die Bedeutung „wollen“ haben, doch entspricht dem deutschen **„ich will“** auch im Präs. und Impf. meist viel besser eine der im Englischen sehr häufigen Wendungen **I want to**, **I wish to** .. (40, 28 und § 75 a A. 1) oder **I am going to** (40, 27 und § 79 A. 2).

‘I shall’, obwohl etymologisch dasselbe Wort wie das deutsche „ich soll“ heißt — affirmativ (in der 1. Person) — niemals „ich soll“.

4. Thou shalt not bear false witness, saith the Lord.

You shall do it = I who am speaking will oblige you to do it.

he shall " " = " " " " " " " him " " "

they shall " " = " " " " " " " them " " "

I shall bezeichnet — affirmativ und negativ — in der ersten Person si. das Futur: **„ich werde“**, ebenso im plu.: **we shall** = „wir werden“. — In der 2. und 3. Person bezeichnet es — affirmativ und negativ — den Willen der sprechenden Person: **you shall du sollst**, **he shall er soll**. § 62, 9.

Den Willen einer dritten Person oder die — durch die Umstände oder das Schicksal gebotene — Notwendigkeit bezeichnet in allen Personen I am to.

I am to do it **ich soll** es tun; am I to ~ soll ich ~? — you are to ~, du sollst ~; are you to ~ sollst du ~? he is to ~ er soll ~; is he to ~ soll er ~? usw.

Unterscheide: You shall come (= I who am speaking to you wish you to come) und you are to come (= some one else wishes [oder circumstances require] you to come).

Unterscheide: This gold watch shall be yours, it will be yours, it is to be yours.

5. Frageform: shall I = 1. werde ich, 2. soll ich? shall he soll er? shall they sollen sie? In der Frage bezeichnet shall in der 1. Pers. si. 1. das Futur: „werde ich?“ 2. daneben auch ebenso wie in der 3. Pers. si. und plu. ein [nicht den Willen der Sprechenden, sondern] den Willen der gefragten Person ausdrückendes Sollen.

Shall I call (wake) you to-morrow earlier than to-day? (Willst du, daß ich ..) Yes, do; please call me at 1/4 to 6. — Shall she (the servant) call you .. (willst du, daß sie ..)? — Shall the children call for you to-morrow after lunch (willst du, daß die Kinder dich .. abholen)?

6. Im abhängigen Satze: In der indirekten Rede steht shall — zur Bezeichnung des deutschen „wird“ (werde) — auch in der 3. Person, wenn Haupt- und Nebensatz gleiches Subjekt haben und wenn shall auch in der direkten Rede stehen würde.

direkt: the boys will see the men ... (44,24).

indirekt: we hope the boys will see ...

„ : we hoped the boys would ...;

aber: the boys say 'We shall see ...

indirekt: the boys hope they shall ...

„ : the boys hoped they should ...

Mr. Saunders thinks he shall reach England by the middle of October, direkt = Mr. S. thinks: I shall reach ... 83, 28; aber Bob thinks his father (i. e. Mr. Saunders) will reach .., direkt = Bob thinks: father will reach .. — Mr. Saunders thought he should reach .., Bob thought his father would reach ...

Anm. Diese Regel beachten strenge Stilistiker natürlich auch für die indirekte Frage.

Independent Question: Shall you (Wirst du) break your journey at R. and stop over till the following morning? — Yes, I shall.

Dependent Question: I asked him whether he should .. and he replied (that) he should do so.

Aber — direkt: Will you (Willst du) break ..? — Yes, I will = indirekt: I asked him whether he would .. and he replied (that) he would do so.

7. should bezeichnet 1. das Konditional (§ 69 c), 2. „sollte“. In letzterem Falle ist es weniger bestimmt als I ought to. — I should = es wäre eigentlich schicklich, daß ich . . ; I ought to = ich sollte (müßte doch) eigentlich: es wäre meine Pflicht und Schuldigkeit. Vgl. 45, 12.

Ann. 1. „Ich soll“ = es ist mir gesagt [aufgetragen] worden, ich solle = I am told to do a thing: Augustine went, as he was told, to the home of the King of Kent 62, 21. — Außerdem heißt I am told noch: ‘man erzählt mir’, ‘es wird mir erzählt (berichtet)’: We are not told much of Shakespeare's early life in London.

Ann. 2. Bezeichnet ‘sollen’ ein **unbestimmtes Gerücht**, so wird es durch **to be said** (oder supposed, believed, thought 77, 16) in persönlicher Konstruktion übersetzt. The priest is said to have answered 62, 8. § 65, 10. Those huge monumental stone circles are by many scholars supposed (believed, thought) to be the relics of a prehistoric age.

I am (we, you, they are) said to have answered = 1. ich soll geantwortet haben, 2. es wird von mir erzählt (gesagt, behauptet), daß ich . . Nowadays nobody can be said to be well bred (well educated), unless he knows English if he does not know English) (§ 81 c. U.).

c) I would heißt oft ‘ich möchte gern’ und ist gleichbedeutend — teils mit I wish (nicht wished), „ich wünschte wohl“ — teils mit I should like to, vgl. 45, 4; 45, 33. — [„Ich möchte“ heißt nie ‘I might’]. — I wish I had done it 17, 14. Bob wishes he had finished it 18, 13. Would (= I would) he were here! I know you would like to see them.

Statt I should like to know sagt man zuweilen I wonder; vgl. 60, 12.

Washington Roebling would sit there and endeavour to continue his superintendence 57, 6. In England no gentleman, accompanying a lady, will ever smoke in the streets. Phœnician sailors used to visit these islands 60, 41.

He (they) would heißt auch ‘er (sie) pflegte(n)’ und ist gleichbedeutend mit dem nur im Impf. so gebrauchten used to. Ähnlich entspricht ‘will’ zuweilen dem deutschen „pflegt“, „pflegen“.

Ann. 1. Merke: would und will kommen im Sinne von „pflegen“ nur in den dritten Personen vor — I used to nur im Impf. (in allen Formen). — Sonst heißt „pflegen, gewohnt sein“: to be in the habit of + gerund oder to be accustomed (to be wont) to + infinitive.

Ann. 2. Das deutsche „Wollen wir“ in der auffordernden Frage wird meist durch shall we übersetzt: What shall we do with ourselves to-night? Shall we go to the theatre? Shall we take a cab? — aber das auffordernde „wir wollen (doch einmal)“ heißt let us (§ 69 b) oder we will: let us (we will) ask her to give us a song.

Ann. 3. Ich darf = I may, I am permitted (allowed) to; ich darf nicht = I must not, I am not permitted (allowed, I am forbidden) to.

Ann. 4. Neben den Hilfsverben I need ich brauche und I dare ich wage bestehen die Vollverben (mit regelmäßiger und vollständiger Flexion):

to need benötigen, bedürfen: needed, needed, needing, needs;

to dare herausfordern, trogen: dared, dared, daring, dares.

Da sich jetzt die Hilfsverben oft mit den Vollverben mischen, so schwankt ihr Sprachgebrauch; duurst, daß immer seltener wird, kommt kaum noch anders als bedingend vor. — A good appetite needs no sauce. — Need I take an umbrella? — He need not return er braucht nicht wiederzukommen, Dare he return? He dare not return. Duurst he return (häufiger: should he dare to return, if he dared to, did he dare to r.), I should tell him never to darken my door again (er solle nie wieder meine Schwelle betreten).

I dare say „ich kann wohl sagen“ (jetzt meist I daresay geschrieben) hat recht unbestimmte Bedeutungen angenommen: ich wette daß, ja freilich, ja natürlich, ja wohl, wahrscheinlich.

§ 76. Es gibt sechs **umschreibende** (periphrastische) **Konjugationsformen**: zwei mit to do: die interrogative und die emphatische; — zwei mit I am: I am to + inf. und I am + partic. pres.; — zwei mit I have: I have to + inf. und I have done + gerund.

§ 77. Die **interrogative Konjugationsform** oder die Umschreibung mit to do wird gebraucht 1. im Präs. und Impf. des Aktivs, wenn der Satz direkt fragend oder mit not verneint ist, — 2. bei dem mit not verneinten Imperativ.

1. Fragend.	Präsens.	2. Verneint.
Do I call? rufe ich?		I do not call ich rufe nicht
do you call?		do not call
does he call?		he does not call
do we (you, they) call?		we (you, they) do not call.

Imperfekt.

Did I (you, he, we, you, they) call?	I (you, he, we, you, they) did not call.
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Präsens.	3. Fragend verneint.	Imperfekt.
Do I (you) not call?		Did I (you, he, we, you, they) not call?
does he not call?		
Do we (you, they) not call?		

Imperativ.

Si.	Plur.
Do not call	Do not call
do not let me call	do not let us call
do not let him (her, it) call	do not let them call.

Anm. 1. Statt do not, does not, did not gebraucht die Umgangssprache meist don't, doesn't, didn't (siehe 16, 20; 28, 27).

Anm. 2. Nur die selbständigen Verben werden mit to do umschrieben — also auch das Verb to do (I do not do. I did not do. Do not do so! How do you do? 13, 20), nicht aber die Hilfsverben to have, to be, I can, I may, I shall, I will, I must, I ought to; — auch nicht I need, I dare; doch siehe § 75 A. 4).

Jedoch wird von to be der Imperativ gewöhnlich mit to do umschrieben: be not angry oder do not (don't) be angry sei nicht böse! Don't be long bleibe nicht lange aus!

Ferner umschreibt die Umgangssprache (nicht die Schriftsprache) die einfachen Zeiten von to have, besonders das 3pf. in der Frageform, fast stets mit to do. Did you have (oder had you) a good game? — I hope I didn't make too many mistakes. . . No, you didn't have very many. — How much did you have (= How much had you) to pay? — Did you have a bath this morning? Do you always have a wash (54, 13) before dinner?

Anm. 3. Nicht umschrieben werden die infiniten Verbformen: not to call nicht rufen, not calling nicht rufend, not to have called, not having called.

Anm. 4. Die Umschreibung mit to do unterbleibt:

1. in der direkten Frage, wenn das Subjekt ein Fragepronomen oder Beziehungswort zum Fragepronomen whose ist (§ 114 a); —

2. in der indirekten Frage, falls sie nicht durch not verneint ist; — wiederhole: 22, 24—23, 18; 20, 1—5;

3. wenn not nicht das Verb, bei dem es steht, sondern ein anderes einzelnes Wort — oder den ganzen Inhalt — des vorhergehenden Satzes verneint. Do you believe that he is ill? I think not; I hope not (I trust not 82, 23).

4. oft in der älteren Sprache, und auch heute noch gelegentlich in der Dichtung. I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke [Shakespeare, Julius Caesar].

§ 78. Die emphatische Konjugationsform. In affirmativen Sätzen dient die Umschreibung mit dem Präs., 3pf. oder Imperativ von to do zur nachdrucksvollen Hervorhebung des in dem nachfolgenden Infinitiv liegenden Verbalbegriffs und kann deutsch oft mit „allerdings“, „wirklich“, „in der Tat“, „tatsächlich auch“, im Imperativ durch 'bitte' oder 'doch' übersetzt werden.

I do like skating 27, 13. At last we did get back ¶ 30, 27; 57, 13. We do feel so thirsty. Do be quiet sei endlich einmal still! Do let me call him! — Tell me, (I) pray, do! Pray, do tell me! — Do send me an illustrated postcard; do have the kindness, please!

§ 79. to be mit dem Part. Präs. drückt das Fortschreiten — einer bereits angefangenen, noch unvollendeten, in der Entwicklung zur Vollendung begriffenen Handlung — oder eines bereits andauernden, seinem Ende entgegengehenden Zustandes — aus.

Diese — englisch the Progressive Form genannte — Konjugationsform kommt in allen Zeiten und auch im Passiv vor. Vgl. 39, 31; they are having it 31, 19; 46, 25. ¶ 42, 30—33; 35, 29; 36, 8; 43, 11; 43, 16; 76, 5.

Aktiv: I am (was, shall be, should be, have been, had been, shall have been, should have been) coming.

Passiv: My dictionary is being bound [oder is getting bound 39, 28]. Experiments were being made 71, 42.

Have you been waiting long? 43, 24. **What are you doing now? I am writing a letter; I write a letter every day.** Let me have a look at what you are writing. Why, I should not like you to look at it just now. I am writing rather badly to-day though generally I write very well.

Im **Präsens** bezeichnet die progressive Form **eine in einem bestimmten Falle gerade vor sich gehende und noch andauernde Handlung**; wohingegen das einfache Präsens eine Handlung nur ganz allgemein oder als wiederholt vorkommend bezeichnet.

Unterscheide: our bird sings well — is singing; the boy goes — is going — to school.

Im **Spf.** bezeichnet die progressive Form **eine Handlung, die bereits andauerte, als eine andere neu eintrat.**

The boys were talking when the master entered the room. The boys stood up when the master entered the room. — When I entered the room, the cloth was being laid.

Ann. 1. Merke: it is raining, snowing, freezing, thundering, thawing.

Ann. 2. I am going heißt: Ich gehe jetzt gerade, bin dabei hinzugehen. Where are you going? I am going to town (20, 34; 20, 30). — I must be going now = I must be off now.

I am going to mit nachfolgendem Infinitiv hat zwei Bedeutungen:

1. es drückt den unmittelbar bevorstehenden Anfangspunkt einer Handlung aus und ist gleichbedeutend mit **I am about to** 'ich bin im Begriff zu', 'ich will jetzt eben'. I am just going to brush my hair 15, 5. The tender is about to go out to the troop-ship now 43, 27. It is going to rain.

2. es ist gleichbedeutend mit „**ich will**“ — mit dem Nebeninn: „und sicherlich tue ich es demnächst auch“. 40, 30; § 41 a Bem.

Ann. 3. Nicht die Progressive Form, sondern aktives Partiz. mit passiver Bedeutung (§ 88d) liegt vor in den Wendungen to be wanting (missing) fehlen, to be owing to die Folge sein von. [In to be willing „wollen“ ist willing Adj.].

§ 80. I am to write ich soll schreiben. — **I have to write** ich habe zu schreiben, ich muß schreiben. — **I have done writing** ich bin mit dem Schreiben fertig. (§ 76). They have had to work hard these last three weeks 31, 8. Have done talking! (§ 69b.) **£** 46, 33.

Statt done mit nachfolgendem Gerundium steht auch finished: I haven't finished doing my German exercise yet 17, 16.

Ann. 1. Über I am to 'ich soll' siehe § 75 b. — Nach Fragerwörtern wie how, what fällt I am gewöhnlich aus: Not knowing what (they were) to do, the Britons asked help of the Angles. — I do not know how (I am) to do this exercise.

Ann. 2. Sehr häufig ist die Umschreibung is to + infinitive. Dabei steht bei passivem Sinn im Englischen passiver Infinitiv: A great many things of this old Roman castle are still to be seen in the museum. There was no happier man to be found in all England. **£** 69, 2.

There is nothing to be done. — Where are these cigars to be got (to be had, to be bought)? — Where is the money to be paid?

Ausgenommen sind — d. h. es stehen im Aktiv —:

a) die Infinitive to let, to blame, to lose in einigen idiomatischen Wendungen wie: [Here are] furnished rooms to let. — I was much to blame (in having put my questions badly). — There is no time to lose.

b) die Infinitive, die sich angeschlossen an Adjektive wie easy, difficult u. a. No other American author is more difficult to judge than Poe, whether as man or as a writer (ungewöhnlich: to be judged) — This is easy to understand (ungewöhnlich: to be understood).

§ 81. a) Das Passiv wird mit to be und dem Part. Pers. umschrieben.

Statt to be gebraucht die Schriftsprache zuweilen, die **Umgangssprache** häufig to get. Vgl. 39, 88. Gilbert got killed as he was coming out of his tent 59, 8. § 59, 29.

b) Paradigma: Paradigm of the Passive Voice.

A. Finite Formen.

1. Präsens: I am called ich werde gerufen, you are (he is) called, we (you, they) are called.	2. Imperfekt: I was called ich wurde gerufen, you were (he was) called, we (you, they) were called.
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3. Futur I: I shall be called ich werde gerufen werden.	4. Konditional I: I should be called ich würde gerufen werden.
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5. Perfekt: I have been called ich bin gerufen worden.	6. Plusquamperfekt: I had been called ich war gerufen worden.
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7. Futur II: I shall have been called ich werde gerufen worden sein.	8. Konditional II: I should have been called ich würde gerufen worden sein (ich wäre gerufen worden).
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Imperativ.

be called werde gerufen, werdet gerufen.

B. Infinitive Formen.

1. Infinitive.

Präs. to be called gerufen werden	Perf. to have been called gerufen worden sein.
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2. Partizipien.

Präs. being called gerufen werdend	Einfaches P. Perf. called gerufen
	Zusammengesetztes P. Perf. having been called gerufen worden seiend.

3. Gerundien.

Präs. being called (das) Gerufenwerden	Perf. having been called (das) Gerufenwordensein.
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Anm. 1. Ein Satz wie 'The cherries are sold' ist unter Umständen zweideutig: = 1. die Kirschchen werden — 2. sind verkauft. Soll Zweideutigkeit vermieden werden, so setzt man: — entweder to get (41, 9) — oder das Passiv der progressiven Form (§ 79): the cherries get (are getting 39, 38) sold, — are being sold.

Anm. 2. „Werden“ als selbständiges Zeitwort (as an independent verb) = to get — to become — to grow, to turn: The tea is getting cold; it has become cold. — He is growing old, his hair has turned from black to white.

c) Im Englischen kann ein **persönliches Passiv** von allen, auch von **solchen Verben** gebildet werden, die eine **präpositionale Ergänzung** bei sich haben, sei es nun, daß diese präpositionale Ergänzung sich unmittelbar an ein Verb, — oder an einen aus Verb und Substantiv gebildeten verbalen Ausdruck anschließt. Die Präposition tritt in diesem Falle völlig tonlos an das Ende des verbalen Ausdrucks.

Besonders zu beachten ist hierbei das persönliche Passiv derjenigen Verben, die im Deutschen den Dativ, im Englischen den Akkusativ regieren (§ 84 b).

This order was promptly obeyed [by Augustine] = Augustine promptly obeyed this order 62, 21.

Merke: Die passive Konstruktion ist im Englischen ganz besonders beliebt (§ 41 e); dabei unterbleibt meist (der Zusatz mit by, d. h.) die Angabe des eigentlich tätigen Subjekts.

The friends of him who had offended the priests were forbidden to speak to him; nor was he allowed to be present at the great sacrifices 60, 32. **¶** 62, 21; 65, 10; 65, 21; 62, 8.

The Hudson is generally spoken of as the American Rhine = People generally speak of the Hudson as the American Rhine 56, 18. The latter point was arrived at (Leichhardt arrived at the latter point) 58, 12. **¶** 58, 16; 58, 38; 59, 27. **We were waited for.**

Both his injured companions were taken care of 59, 16 = Dr. L. took care of both his injured companions. — His advice was not taken notice of = people did not take notice of his advice. — Part of Osborne House was then taken possession of by the Royal Naval College = the R. N. C. then took p. of part of O. H. — **¶** 75, 28.

Einfache Verben mit Präposition: to speak of — to speak to — to arrive at — to send for — to wait for — to think of — to hear of — to listen to — to care for — to seek for — to rely on — to depend on — to agree with — to object to — to resolve on — to improve on — to interfere with — to dispose of.

Verbale Ausdrücke (Verb + Objekt) mit Präposition: to take care of (59, 16) — to take notice of bemerken, beachten — to take possession of Besitz ergreifen von — to catch sight of (62, 4) — to catch hold of ergreifen, sich bemächtigen.

Anm. Die unpersönliche Passivform kommt im Englischen selten vor, meist nur bei Verben des Denkens und Sagens. It was thought [supposed, believed] that whoever died in a crusade was sure to go to Heaven. — It was said [assured, affirmed, asserted, reported] that wherever the railway went land would lose its value 71, 31. — § 71, 32.

Vorzuziehen ist das persönliche Passiv. Sehr beliebt sind auch Wendungen mit there is — oder active, das deutsche „man“ (§ 41 b) ausdrückende Wendungen. There is much riding about to be done 82, 7, es muß viel herumgeritten werden. — We danced a good deal es wurde ziemlich viel getanzt; we had a good deal of dancing; there was a good deal of dancing. — There is a knock at the door = Somebody knocks es wird geklopft. — [There is] no smoking allowed here = Smoking is not a. h. — § 79, 3; 71, 30; 76, 18.

d) Verben, die im Aktiv vor dem Akkusativ der Sache den unbezeichneten Dativ der Person (§ 84 c) haben, können bei der Umwandlung ins Passiv entweder den Sachkasus oder den **Personenkasus** zum **Subjekt** haben; in letzterem Falle bleibt dann der Sachkasus unverändert im Akkusativ. Thanet, which had been given them by the British 61, 32. — § 74, 5.

The German Emperor was given a very hearty welcome in London = A very hearty welcome was given to the German Emperor = the City of London gave the German Emperor a very h. w. — § 74, 5.

Alfred had not been taught any kind of learning (His parents had not taught A. any kind of l. No kind of l. had been taught to A.) 63, 3. — We were shown the way by a gentleman.

He was offered a great deal of money = A great deal of money was offered him = They offered him a great deal of money.

§ 82. a) Paradigma der reflexiven Form des Verbs (§ 42 a):

To distinguish oneself [frühere Schreibung: one's self] sich auszeichnen.

Präsens: I distinguish myself ich zeichne mich aus
 you distinguish yourself du zeichnest dich aus
 he distinguishes himself er zeichnet sich aus
 she distinguishes herself sie zeichnet sich aus
 it distinguishes itself es zeichnet sich aus
 one distinguishes oneself man zeichnet sich aus
 we distinguish ourselves wir zeichnen uns aus
 you distinguish yourselves ihr zeichnet euch aus
 they distinguish themselves sie zeichnen sich aus.

Abgestorbene Formen:

thou distinguishest thyself

he distinguisheth himself.

b) **Gelegentlich reflexiv** sind viele transitive Verben, welche durch Hinzufügung des Reflexiv-Pronomens (§ 42 a) reflexiv werden. § 82 a.

Sowohl transitiv wie reflexiv sind viele Verben, welche, um ein reflexives Verhältniß auszudrücken, der Hinzufügung des Reflexivpronomens nicht bedürfen, und die es daher meist fortlassen:

to wash 1. waschen, 2. sich waschen (wofür seltener to wash oneself steht) — to dress ankleiden, sich ankleiden — to prove beweisen, sich erweisen als — to feel fühlen, sich fühlen (fast nie mit Reflexiv-Pronomen) — u. a. m.

Ausschließlich reflexive Verben, d. h. solche Verben, bei welchen das Reflexiv-Pronomen in immer steht, gibt es sehr wenige:

to oversleep oneself = to sleep too long. Andere Beispiele sind die schon etwas veralteten Wendungen: to betake oneself (= to make one's way, to take one's course) to und to pride (and plume) oneself on (stolz sein und sich etwas zugute tun auf), u. a. m.

Nicht reflexiv im Englischen sind viele Verben, die im Deutschen meist durch ein reflexives Verb wiedergegeben werden:

to sit down sich setzen, Platz nehmen. — to take place sich ereignen, geschehen — to happen sich ereignen — to stay sich aufhalten, bleiben — to endeavour sich bemühen, versuchen — to be afraid of sich fürchten vor, bange sein vor — to imagine sich einbilden, sich vorstellen — to retire sich zurückziehen — to rely on sich verlassen auf — to wonder sich wundern, gern wissen mögen, to wonder at sich wundern über — to take care sich in acht nehmen — to remember sich erinnern an, noch gut wissen — to prove sich erweisen als, sich zeigen als — to turn to sich wenden an — to hasten (to make haste, familiär: to look sharp) sich beeilen — to recover sich erholen — to long for sich sehnen nach — to depend on sich verlassen auf — to settle down sich niederlassen, sich ansiedeln — to get ready sich fertig machen — to interfere with sich einmischen in — u. a.

§ 83. Unpersönliche Verben (Verben, die außer im Infinitiv nur in der 3. Person der Einzahl mit dem unbestimmten neutralen Subjekte 'es' vorkommen).

a) it rains es regnet, it snows schneit, it freezes friert, it hails hagelt, it lightens blitzt, it thunders donnert; — it is cold, hot, warm; — it strikes three u. a. m.

Anm. Die unpersönlichen Ausdrücke „es gibt“, „es ist“, „es sind“ werden übersetzt durch: there is, there are, there was (were), there will be, there has (have) been; — fragend: is there? are there? was (were) there? will there be? has (have) there been? — Partizipien: there being, there having been 36, 28.

b) Viele im Deutschen unpersönliche Ausdrücke sind im Englischen persönlich: I am cold mich friert — I am hot mir ist heiß — I am warm mir ist warm — I am hungry mich hungert — I am thirsty, well, unwell — I am glad es freut mich — I am sorry es tut mir leid — I am afraid mir ist bange — I wonder at es wundert mich — I am pleased es gefällt mir — I succeed in es gelingt mir.

Anm. Beachte besonders die persönliche Konstruktion von

a) I am sure to (sicherlich), I am likely to (wahrscheinlich) — wo sure und likely also Objektive sind: We are sure to get our remove 37, 34. The general

application of electricity is likely to bring about a great revolution in the social life of mankind 72, 14.

b) to happen, to chance (zufällig trifft es sich, daß): Dr. L. happened to be sleeping by the campfire 59, 4.

c) to please belieben, geruhen, es sich gefallen lassen: just as you please wie Sie wollen — if you please gefälligst, — please (to) step in treten Sie näher — please yourself machen Sie sichs bequem — I shall just please myself ich tue, was mir beliebt — let him do as he pleases. §. 82, 44; 147, 8.

§ 84. Rektion der Verben.

a) Die **faktitiven** Verben werden mit dem **doppelten Akkusativ** (einem Objekts- und einem prädikativen Akkusativ), im Passiv mit dem doppelten Nominativ verbunden; dabei bleiben die Präpositionen **als, zu, für** unübersetzt.

Faktitive Verben sind solche Verben, die neben dem direkten Objekt noch eine zweite Ergänzung verlangen, wie

to make machen zu — to appoint ernennen zu — to elect, to choose erwählen zu — to crown krönen zu — to deem, to think, to believe halten für — to proclaim proklamieren, öffentlich ausrufen als u. a.

Edward the Confessor promised to appoint William his successor = William was not appointed Edward's successor 63, 81.

William had himself crowned King of England (the Archbishop crowned him King of England) 64, 27. — These Northmen made themselves masters of that part of France 63, 19. — The plant was held sacred by the Druids (the Druids held the plant sacred) 60, 81. — Believe me yours very sincerely, N. N. § 63, 9; 63, 10.

b) Abweichend vom Deutschen haben den Akkusativ:

to oppose entgegentreten — to meet begegnen — to follow folgen — to help helfen — to disobey nicht gehorchen — to obey gehorchen — to permit gestatten — to thank danken — to escape entfliehen, entkommen — to withstand widerstehen — to approach sich nähern — to assist beistehen — to recollect, to remember sich erinnern, noch denken an — to resist Widerstand leisten — to serve dienen — to pardon verzeihen — to enter eintreten in — to invade mit feindlicher Absicht eindringen in — u. a. Harold hastened from York to oppose William (Harold opposed William; William was opposed by Harold) 63, 87.

c) Bei vielen vollstümlichen Verben wird der **Dativ der Person** neben dem Akkusativ der Sache **nicht** mit **to bezeichnet** (sondern durch den sogenannten verkürzten Dativ ausgedrückt), wenn der Dativ wenig betont ist und der Akkusativ unmittelbar dahinter oder am Anfang des Satzes steht.

The monitor brings the master the school-list. — George III. had lost England a colonial empire 78, 86. — The knife and fork which Parker had given the boy were not clean; vgl. § 115 a, b.

Besonders oft bleibt der Dativ unbezeichnet nach den Verben:

to bring, buy, forgive, get (verschaffen, besorgen, holen), give, grant, leave (über-, hinterlassen), lend, offer, to owe schuldig sein, return zurückgeben, sell, send, show, teach, write u. a. — He wrote me a letter; he wrote to me yesterday. — He owes me five pounds.

Anm. Nach to tell sagen steht der unbezeichnete Dativ meist auch dann, wenn kein Akkusativ der Sache dabei steht. — To say sagen hat entweder nur den Akkusativ der Sache oder nur den Dativ der Person, nie beides zugleich nach sich; der Dativ wird bei to say stets durch to bezeichnet. — To speak to mit jemand sprechen. — Will you please tell me what pencil is called in German? — Mind your hat! (paß auf deinen Hut auf; halt ihn fest) you may say to a friend.

d) Stets mit to wird der Dativ bezeichnet nach to belong — to owe verdanken — to communicate — to reply — to appear, to seem — to prefer — to read to vorlesen u. a.

§ 85. Gebrauch der Zeiten.

Das Imperfekt (von den Engländern passender Past tense genannt) bezeichnet eine in der Vergangenheit zum völligen Abschluß gelangte Handlung.

Das Imperfekt muß stehen, wenn der Zeitraum, in welchem ein Vorgang stattfand, in der Vergangenheit bestimmt abgeschlossen ist: Past tense when the time is finished.

Als in der Vergangenheit bestimmt abgeschlossen gilt jeder Zeitraum, dessen Anfang und Ende genau begrenzt sind.

Diese bestimmte Abgrenzung des in der Vergangenheit abgeschlossenen Zeitraums ist — entweder durch direkte Zeitangaben bestimmt angegeben, oder — durch den Zusammenhang angedeutet.

Solche direkte Zeitangaben, die — nach Auffassung des Engländers — auch den Abschluß der Handlung in der Vergangenheit bestimmt angeben, sind z. B.:

a) Adverbien oder adverbiale Ausdrücke wie last night (last week, last month, last summer, last year, last century), — yesterday, once einmal = vormals, formerly früher, the other day neulich, then (damals), a week (a fortnight, a month usw.) ago, . .

b) Zeitbestimmungen nach dem Datum oder der Uhrzeit;

c) das Fragewort when (wann), die Konjunktion when (damals, als) und die Wendung at the time when (zur Zeit als);

d) als bestimmte Angabe des Abschlusses eines Vorganges in der Vergangenheit gilt auch die bloße Erwähnung einer historisch bekannten Persönlichkeit, eines früher bestehenden (jetzt untergegangenen) Reiches, usw.:

in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, under Queen Victoria, — Cicero, Caesar, Frederick the Great, Napoleon, Macaulay, — Assyria usw.

Ist der Zeitraum der Vergangenheit unabgeschlossen, — ist zwar sein Anfang begrenzt, sein Ende aber noch nicht da, ist die Handlung in der Vergangenheit noch nicht völlig abgeschlossen, sondern noch als fortlaufend aufzufassen — so steht das Perfekt: the Perfect tense when the time is unfinished.

Zeitangaben, die nach Auffassung des Engländers einen solchen in der Vergangenheit unabgeschlossenen Zeitraum bezeichnen, sind

hitherto, up to now, up to the present, — in my time — these (last) three days (weeks, months, years, centuries) — this moment, this week (fortnight, month . .) — this evening, to-night — to-day, this morning (jedoch nur, wenn der Sprechende sich selbst noch in dem durch diese Ausdrücke bezeichneten Zeitabschnitte befindet, und wenn nicht durch bestimmte Zeitangaben der **Abschluß** des Vorganges ausgedrückt ist: I got up early this morning — to-day we had breakfast at seven].

Auch wenn der Zeitpunkt in der Vergangenheit unbestimmt ist, steht das **Perfekt**.

People spoke of war yesterday. — Have you ever been in London? Yes, I have often been there; my father formerly lived there. — When were you in London? Were you in London last year? What did you see there? Did you meet my uncle when you were there? — Have you been in London this year? Yes, I have been there twice. — Shakespeare was (ist oder wurde) born in 1564 and died in 1616. Dr. Leichhardt studied (hat studiert) at the university of Berlin. Macaulay was a great historian. Cicero often made (nicht has often made) speeches. — Assyria had (nicht has had) many able rulers; aber England has had many able rulers. —

British history began (hat begonnen) with Julius Caesar; aber: For many centuries no foreign army has invaded (betrat) England. — In the middle ages many men spent (haben . .) their lives to discover the philosopher's stone. — What has happened? (Was ist geschehen? Was ist los?) What happened then? (Nun, und was geschah dann weiter?)

Besonders zu merken ist der hiermit im Zusammenhang stehende Gebrauch des **englischen Perfekts statt des deutschen Präsens**, wenn eine in der Vergangenheit begonnene Handlung in der Gegenwart des Sprechenden fortbauert. Have you been waiting long? 43, 24. Wartet ihr schon lange? .

Merke: Auch bei for (two hours) jetzt schon seit . . und since (two o'clock) schon seit . . (§ 107, No. 5) steht das **Perfekt**: How long have you been here? Wie lange sind Sie jetzt schon hier? I have been here since Monday (I arrived here on Monday). — How long has the orator been speaking (spricht jetzt schon)? He has spoken (has been speaking, spricht nun schon seit) for an hour. — How many weeks have you been travelling? (sind Sie schon auf Reisen?) We have been travelling for six weeks.

I have been in bed more than a week (liege nun schon). I have been ill a fortnight (oder this fortnight). My daughter has been dead (these) six months, aber she died six months ago [§ 44 d]. It has been raining these last two hours (es regnet schon seit . .).

Unterscheide: How long have you been in England? und How long were you in England? How long has he been — was he — away?

When were you born? I was born . . ich bin geboren. — I forget (familiär) = I have forgotten (§ 71 I) — I have got (40, 37) = I have.

Anm. Ähnlich steht statt des deutschen Imperfekts das **Plsqpf.**: The Angles had long been wishing (sehnten sich schon längst) for a pleasanter home. § 80, 31.

§ 86. a) Indikativ. — Wie im Französischen steht im Englischen **in der indirekten** (abhängigen) **Rede und Frage der Indikativ.**

Dabei richtet sich das Verb des abhängigen Satzes nach dem Verb des Hauptsatzes, — so daß, falls das Verb des Hauptsatzes ein *Impf.* oder *Plusqpf.* ist, das Verb des abhängigen Satzes je nach dem Sinne im *Impf.*, *Plusqpf.* oder *Konditional* steht. **§ 62, 7; 67, 27; 67, 29; [22, 24—37; 23, 5].**

Direkte Frage: Why is it so?

Indirekte Frage: 1. I now tell you why it is so; —

2. I then told you why it was so.

Anm. „Ob“ — in der einfachen indirekten Frage — heißt *if* oder *whether*, — in der indirekten Doppelfrage *whether* (*whether . . or*). **§ 21, 2; 22, 25; 22, 28; 22, 29.** — „Als ob“ = *as if*, vgl. **§ 86 d** *U. 3.* — **§ 44, 3.**

b) Konjunktiv. — Wiederhole 1. **§ 69 b** — 2. I be — thou have, he have, I were, **§ 74** — 3. thou call, he call **§ 69 f.**

Der reine **Konjunktiv** (the simple [form of the] Subjunctive, the bare Subjunctive) steht

1. **in Hauptsätzen** zum Ausdrucke des Wunsches und der Einräumung, jedoch meist nur in einigen mehr oder minder formelhaften Wendungen wie *Long live the King* — *Suffice it* (to say that . .) — *Thy will be done* — *So be it* — *Heaven help us* — *God be praised* — *God bless you* — *God forbid* — *God be with you.*

Be that as it may. — **§ 74, 21.**

Etymologisch gehört hierher der Ausdruck *good-bye* (13, 27 ursprünglich = *God be with you*); doch ist heutzutage das Gefühl für diesen Ursprung völlig erloschen.

2. **in Nebensätzen,**

a) **in Subjekt- und Objektsätzen:**

α) nach den Ausdrücken des — behördlichen oder satzungsgemäßen — Anordnens, Bestimmens, Ersuchens.

The regulation is that no candidate take a book into the examination-room — It is a standing rule in golf-clubs that every one replace the turf which he cuts up — It is requested that letters to the Editor be written on one side of the paper only.

β) nach *I wish* (**§ 75 c**) und *would* (= *I would*) im Sinne von „ich wünschte wohl, aber leider ist es unerfüllbar“ und ähnlichen Ausdrücken eines frommen Wunsches:

Would (that) I were young again. — *I wish (that) I were (I had been, I could have been) there.* — **§ 17, 14.**

b) **in Adverbialsätzen**, wenn etwas als zur Zeit noch recht zweifelhaft, noch gar sehr von Möglichkeiten abhängig hingestellt werden soll,

konzeßiv — nach den Konjunktionen though (although obgleich, obgleich) — nach whether . . or (mag . . oder, sei es daß . . oder) und nach den mit -ever (-soever) gebildeten verallgemeinernden Fürwörtern (whoever, whatever, whichever § 46 f) und Adverbien (however wie auch immer — wherever wo(hin) auch immer — whencesoever woher auch immer, u. a.): Though he make every effort, he cannot succeed. § 133, 33; 134, 32; —

konditional — nach if „wenn“, unless „wenn nicht“ (wofür nicht, es sei denn, daß) — provided (that) oder suppose (that) „vorausgesetzt, daß“ — on condition that „unter der Bedingung, daß“ — in case that im Falle „daß“, „falls“ — wenn die Bedingung als bloße Annahme hingestellt wird. If a boy but try, he will succeed; — § 73, 43; 132, 5; 136, 31.

komparativ, — nach as if (as though „als ob“, than that „als daß“, than if „als wenn“: I am not so happy as if I were at home — I feel as if (as though) I were going to fall — It is of greater importance that the treatment be clear than that it be complete — § 68, 43; 142, 1.

Die in den vorstehenden Fällen — unter b) — gegebenen Beispiele gehören der sorgfältig gepflegten Sprech- und Schreibweise des heutigen Englisch an: 'A right use of the subjunctive is an elegance of diction'. In den gleichen Fällen setzt die Umgangssprache häufig, die Schriftsprache zuweilen den Indikativ. Der Indikativ muß jedoch nach den unter b) genannten Konjunktionen stehen, wenn etwas Gewisses, bereits Entschiedenes ausgedrückt wird.

Anm. Veraltet ist der reine Konjunktiv in finalen Adverbialsätzen: Don't talk so loud lest he overhear us. — To act that each to-morrow Find us farther than to-day (Longfellow 147, 28; 130, 23).

c) The periphrastic [form of the] Subjunctive. Häufiger als der reine Konjunktiv ist seine Umschreibung durch die modalen Hilfsverben (§ 73) may, might — will, would — shall, should.

Umschreibung des Konjunktivs

1. in Hauptsätzen — durch may — zum Ausdruck des Wunsches: Long may he reign — May I live to see it.
2. in Nebensätzen — durch will, would — may, might — shall, should.

Caution. Das den Konjunktiv umschreibende should (eines Nebensatzes) ist natürlich anders aufzufassen als das den Konditional bildende (eines Folgesatzes). Auch äußerlich unterscheidet es sich von letzterem dadurch, daß es meist vollbetont ist.

a) In Subjektsätzen durch should

nach den unpersönlichen Ausdrücken

it is a pity (a shame, a good thing, a misfortune, a piece of good fortune)

it is strange (wonderful, fortunate, surprising);

jedoch nur wenn — nicht die Tatsache, sondern mehr — das subjektive Empfinden oder das Urteil des Sprechenden bei dem Gedanken an die Tatsache ausgedrückt werden soll: That he has acted thus is a great misfortune, but that he should have acted thus, is not surprising. — § 70, 12.

Ferner steht should nach

it is impossible (right, wrong, necessary und ähnlichen Ausdrücken) — jedoch steht may, might nach it is possible, it is probable. It is not good that man should be alone. — § 142, 39.

β) in **Objektsätzen** durch will, would — may, might — shall, should.

Hierbei ist shall, should — seiner Bedeutung nach — viel bestimmter und entschiedener als will, would — may, might. Es steht demnach shall, should — nach den ein entschiedenes Wollen ausdrückenden Verben des Forderns, Befehlens, Verbieters, Beschließens (to demand — to desire „das Verlangen stellen“, „bestimmt den Wunsch äußern“ — to command, to order, to tell, to propose, to promise — to defend — to agree, to decide, to resolve . . .);

will, would — may, might — nach den ein schwächeres Wollen bezeichnenden Ausdrücken des Wunsches (wünschen, bitten, hoffen): to wish, to pray, to hope . . . Orders are given that no one shall move. — Orders were g. that n. o. should m. — The traveller desired that a small back room should be retained for him. — He begged that he might be admitted to our meeting.

Bei den Ausdrücken des Affekts zeigt sich, daß der Engländer bei der Furcht eine geringere Gemütsbewegung empfindet als bei den übrigen Affekten. Es steht

— neben dem Indikativ, der nach allen Verben des Affekts zulässig ist —

will, would — may, might nach den Ausdrücken des Fürchtens, should — auch nach vorausgegangenem Präsens — nach den Ausdrücken der Freude, der Verwunderung, des Bedauerns usw. (to be glad — to wonder, to be astonished (surprised) — to regret . . .).

It is to be regretted that the prose writings of Milton should, in our time, be so little read (oder auch: are so little read).

Nach den Verben des Fürchtens (to fear, to be afraid) heißt „daß“ meistens that, nur ganz selten noch lest.

Nach that steht — entweder die Umschreibung mit may, might; will, would — oder der Indikativ. Fehlt that, was in der Umgangssprache meist der Fall ist, so steht das Futur.

Nach lest steht — entweder der reine — oder der durch should umschriebene Konjunktiv.

I have a fear lest he (should) discover the mistake; dafür häufiger: that he may oder (that) he will discover the mistake. — I'm afraid we shall be late. — § 82, 13.

γ) in **Adverbialsätzen** durch may, might, should: durch may, might in **finalen** Nebensätzen — nach that (seltener: in order that) „damit“, that not „damit nicht“. — Nach lest „damit nicht“

steht (auch nach einem Präsens)-should, selten may. § 64, 17; 79, 43.
I eat that I may live — I eat lest I should die;

durch shall, should in **temporalen** Nebensätzen, die sich auf die Zukunft beziehen — nach when (whenever), after, before (ere), till (until), as soon as, as long as . . . besonders, wenn angedeutet werden soll, daß das etwaige Eintreten des Falles bloß angenommen oder jedenfalls erst abzuwarten ist. They intended to wait till the ship should sail, — daneben auch (weniger elegant): till the ship sailed. — They intend to wait till the ship shall sail, — daneben (weniger elegant, aber sehr häufig): till the ship sails, [früher auch, aber heute völlig veraltet: sail]. — § 128, 36; 131, 43;

in Konzeptionsätzen,

steht meist der Indikativ; jedoch setzen Schriftsteller, die auf elegance of diction (einen feingepflegten literarischen Stil) Gewicht legen, zuweilen die Umschreibung des Konjunktivs

durch should — nach though, although,

durch may, might — nach whether . . . or (ob . . . oder, mag . . . oder, sei es daß . . . oder), nach nachgestelltem as (obgleich) und nach den mit -ever (-soever) gebildeten verallgemeinernden Fürwörtern (§ 46 f) und Adverbien however wie auch immer, wherever wo[hin] auch immer, whencesoever von woher auch immer . . .).

Though every one deserts (desert, should desert) you, I will not. § 69, 11; 77, 1.

(Al)though he is rich

Rich though he is

Rich as he is

} , he is not happy; —

durch should oder were to in **Konditionalsätzen**, — nach if „wenn“ — provided (that) oder suppose (supposing) that vorausgesetzt daß, wofern — on condition that unter der Bedingung, daß — in case (that) im Falle daß, falls — unless oder except wenn nicht, wofern nicht, es sei denn, daß — (jedoch heutzutage nur dann noch), wenn der Sprechende Gewicht darauf legt, seinen starken Zweifel an dem Eintreten des Falles von vornherein zum Ausdruck zu bringen. Vgl. § 86 d. 3. § 72, 33.

d) **Bedingungsätze** (Conditional Propositions: antecedent Vorder-satz; consequent Folgesatz).

Die englische Sprache unterscheidet **drei** Arten von **Bedingungen**.

1. Open or colourless condition: der Sprechende äußert sich gar nicht — er läßt völlig offen und unbestimmt — ob er das, was er als Annahme hinstellt, für wirklich, unwirklich oder zweifelhaft hält. In solchen unbestimmten Bedingungsätzen steht nach if „wenn“ der Indikativ.

If I have money, I spend it. — If I have money, I shall spend it. — If I had money, I spent it. —

If he dined early, he is hungry. — If he dined early, he will want his supper. —

If you have money, spend it.

2. Rejected or unreal condition: es wird ausdrücklich angedeutet, daß etwas der Wirklichkeit nicht Entsprechendes angenommen wird. **In irrealen Bedingungsätzen** steht nach *if* „wenn“ das **Impf.** oder **Plusqpf.** und im **Folgesatz** das **Konditional**.

If I committed a crime (now or in the future), I should be sorry (now or in the future).

If I were committing a crime (now), I should be sorry (now).

If I had committed a crime (in the past), I should be sorry (now).

If I had committed a crime (in the past), I should have been sorry (in the past).

If I were committing a crime (now), I should have taken precautions (in the past). § 128, 40.

Bemerkung. Daß der nach *if* im Vordersatz stehende Modus eigentlich Konjunktiv ist, zeigt deutlich das *were* im zweiten Beispiel.

3. Hypothetical (= very doubtful, highly improbable) condition: die Bedingung wird — was im Englischen jedoch nur sehr selten geschieht — ausdrücklich als sehr zweifelhaft, als überaus unwahrscheinlich hingestellt. **In Bedingungen starken Zweifels** steht nach *if* „wenn“ der reine Konjunktiv oder die Umschreibung mit **should** oder **were to**.

If I be committing a crime [but I don't think I am], I shall rue it.

If I were to commit a crime
If I should commit a crime } I shall rue it.

Beachtung. Das 'should commit' in dem *if*=Satz des letzten Beispiels ist selbstverständlich nicht als Konditionalis aufzufassen: der Konditionalis kommt im Englischen nur in Folgesätzen vor (vgl. § 86 c. *Caution*, S. 235).

Anm. 1. Statt eines mit *if* eingeleiteten Bedingungsatzes steht auch im Englischen zuweilen die Inversion (ohne *if*, § 114 b), jedoch nur in Bedingungen der Unwirklichkeit oder des Zweifels. § 73, 43; 65, 4; 140, 15.

Did I commit
 Had I committed
 Were I committing
 Were I to commit
 Should I commit

} a crime, I should be sorry.

Anm. 2. Die im Deutschen ziemlich häufige Verwendung des Konjunktivs im Folgesatz kannte im Englischen die ältere Sprache ebenfalls (§ 142, 5). Für die heutige Prosa beschränkt sich dieser Gebrauch auf die vier Konjunktive

should, would, could, might,

welche — mit nachfolgendem pres. inf. — im Sinne des ersten Konditionals,

mit nachfolgendem perfect inf. im Sinne des zweiten Konditionals stehen können.

Das deutsche „ich hätte“, „ich wäre“, „ich käme“, „ich trüge“ . . . im Nachsatz eines hypothetischen Satzgefüges ist demnach durch *I should have, I should be, I should come, I should carry* . . . zu übersetzen.

Anm. 3. „wenn er wäre“ = 1. (irreal): *if he were* — 2. (als Ausdruck des Zweifels): *if he were to be; if he should be*; — „als ob“ = *as if*. *He behaved as [he would behave] if he were mad.*

Werte: as it were = as if it were „gleichsam“, „sozusagen“.

Ann. 4. „wenn nicht“ = entweder einfach: unless, — oder viel häufiger: if not. Unless I hear the contrary (dafür häufiger: If I do not hear the c.), I will be here. — Nach if „wenn“ steht (wie aus dem Vorhergehenden erhellt) im Englischen meistens der Indikativ.

§ 87 a. Infinitive: 39, 28. to call = 1. rufen — 2. zu rufen — 3. um zu rufen. — to have called, to be called, to have been called. — Wiederhole § 69 f. — §§ 74—77, Ann. 3. — § 81 b.

Zusammengesetzte Verben (45, 35; § 116 c): to listen to anhören, to have listened to; — to be listened to, to have been listened to.

b) Der Infinitiv — eine der beiden Substantivformen des Verbs (§ 69 a) — hat nie eine andere Präposition als to vor sich; oft steht er ohne to (16, 15).

The Infinitive with 'to': To muß stehen,
wenn der Infinitiv Subjekt oder Prädikatsnomen ist.

To see is to believe (Seeing is believing). — To swim (Swimming) is a healthy exercise. — It is not worth while to spend a whole afternoon over such a book;

als Objekt steht der Infinitiv mit to
nach I ought — dem einzigen Hilfsverb, nach welchem to steht. An honest man (A man of honour) ought never to tell a lie;

als Attribut

nach vielen Adjektiven und Substantiven: I am glad to meet you — I had no opportunity to speak (of speaking) to him.

Bem. Sind mehrere Infinitive, die an und für sich to erfordern, koordiniert, so tritt zu meist nur zu dem ersten. § 55, 33; 61, 18; 62, 43; 75, 40; 81, 34.

The Infinitive without 'to' [= the bare Infinitive]: Ohne to steht der Infinitiv nach I cannot but (ich kann nicht anders, ich muß =) ich kann nicht umhin, zu — sowie nach gewissen komparativen Wendungen, wie: I had rather . . . than — I had better . . . than. § 81, 31. — I had much rather drive than walk. — You had better be reading than sitting here doing nothing;

in Ausrufen als Ausdruck des Zweifels an der Möglichkeit einer Behauptung: What? An Englishman betray his country? He surrender? Never!

c) The Accusative with Infinitive: Akkus. mit Inf. heißt die Verbindung eines Akkusativobjekts mit einem Prädikatsakkusativ im Inf., welche beide von einem Verb abhängen.

On board of the Cape Hope we heard the ship's band play 48, 1. — I believe him to know all about it. — Pope Gregory bade Augustine improve their heathen customs 62, 17. — This made people notice them 62, 2.

Der Akkusativ mit Infinitiv, welcher im Lateinischen in Subjekt- wie Objektsätzen vorkommt, ist im Englischen — wie im Deutschen — auf Objektsätze beschränkt. Häufiger als im Deutschen, welches ihn nach den Verben heißen, sehen, hören, fühlen, lassen kennt, steht er im Englischen nach den Verben der sinnlichen und verstandesmäßigen Wahrnehmung, der Willensäußerung und des Bewirkens.

Weitere Unterschiede vom Lateinischen: Der englische *U.* mit *J.* steht immer nur nach einem transitiven Verb, dessen Akkusativobjekt er ist. Da er gleichzeitig dem Sinne nach Subjekt der durch den Infinitiv ausgedrückten Tätigkeit ist, so ergibt sich seine **Stellung** im Satz:

1. regierendes Verb. — 2. **Akkusativ.** — 3. **Infinitiv.**

Drei Ausnahmen zu dieser Stellungsregel: 1. The band which we heard play. — 2. What did you hear play? What band (Which band) did you hear play? — 3. How many bands did you hear play? How much money do you wish to be given you for your London trip? **§ 62, 26; 78, 22.**

Der *U.* mit *J.* steht

ohne to: nach den Verben der Wahrnehmung (to hear, to see, to feel, to notice u. a.) im Aktiv,

so wie nach to let, to bid, to make, —

mit to: nach den Verben des Wünschens, Befehlens, Zulassens (to like, to wish — to desire, to order — to permit, to suffer u. a.),

so wie nach den Verben des Denkens und Sagens (to believe, to suppose, to declare u. a.).

He desired all letters to be left till called for (= postlagernd). — I took him to be one who had been shipwrecked like myself. — The English declared Harold to be their king. **§ 34, 33; 35, 34.**

Tritt das regierende Verb ins Passiv, so entsteht die Konstruktion des Nominativ mit Infinitiv: the band was heard to play. — He is believed [by me] to know all about it. — Augustine was bidden [by Pope Gregory] to improve their heathen customs. — People were made (by this) to notice them. A huge circle gradually contracted round the place where the tiger was thought to lie 77, 15.

Haben Haupt- und Nebensatz das gleiche Subjekt, so steht statt eines deutschen Personalpronomens als Subjekt des *U.* mit *J.* das Reflexivpronomen. Few have thought (proved, shown) themselves to be worthy of the honour. — Unterscheide: Every one declared (reported, believed, knew) him to be innocent und himself to be innocent.

Some suppose them to be the ruins of a Celtic temple 60, 19 = Some suppose (that) they are the ruins of a Celtic temple = By some they are supposed to be the ruins of a C. t.

Weitere Abweichung vom Lateinischen: statt des Akkusativs mit dem Infinitiv kann fast stets die Konjunktion that oder — unter Auslassung von that — die einfache parataktische Anfügung im Indikativ stehen.

England expects every man to do his duty 74, 23 = E. expects (that) e. m. will do h. d. — He wishes his daughter to learn Greek = He w. (that) his d. should l. Gr. — That proved me to be right = That proved (that) I was right.

Bemerkung 1. To say hat that (das natürlich auch fehlen kann), nie aber den *U.* mit *J.*; dagegen ist to be said to („sollen“ oder „man sagt“) mit Nom.

mit Inf. sehr gebräuchlich. We may truly say (that) he was the complete model of a wise man. The priest is said to have answered; vgl. § 84 c. U. 65, 10.

Bem. 2. Nach to tell, to answer, to reply (erwidern) im Sinne von: als Tatsache verkünden; aussagen, daß etwas tatsächlich so ist — steht that, nicht der U. mit J. — Nach to tell, to write, to ask = auffordern (befehlen), daß; sagen, (man) solle (doch) — steht der Infinitiv [dabei gehört ein etwa dabeistehender Affusativ zum regierenden Verb, ist nicht der Subjektaffusativ des Infinitivsages].

Bem. 3. Nach to think steht der U. mit J. nur, wenn der Infinitiv des U. mit Infinitiv-Nebensages das Verb to be ist; sonst steht that oder einfache parataktische Anfügung: I think him to be wrong. — I think you will enjoy your holidays.

Bem. 4. Bei den Verben des Befehlens und Lassens darf der Akkusativ des U. mit J. nie fehlen, also nicht wie im Deutschen der bloße Infinitiv stehen; dabei steht bei passivem Sinn der passive Infinitiv.

Lassen, zulassen, geschehen lassen = [ohne to:] to let, —
[mit to:] to permit, to allow, to suffer.

Lassen, veranlassen = [ohne to:] to make, —
[mit to:] to order, to cause,

The crafty William ordered his men to pretend to run away 64, 7. Queen Elizabeth ordered a copy of the Bible to be placed in every parish church. — Then rising to his feet Columbus drew his sword and ordered the royal standard to be displayed. — The king suffered himself to be baptized. — The fame of the Portuguese discoveries had caused Columbus to come to Lisbon. — Now let us go! — The captain commanded the soldiers to fire the guns (= the soldiers were commanded [by the c.] to fire the g.) — oder: The captain commanded the guns to be fired (= the guns were commanded to be fired). Unterscheide: He suffered himself to be killed und he suffered him to be killed.

Bem. 5. Andere Möglichkeiten, das deutsche „lassen“ auszudrücken, sind:

a) to have (to get) something done [§ 88 b]: I always have hot water brought to me in the morning. — He gets (has) his boots made in London;

β) to have some one do something: I always have my servant bring me hot water for shaving when she calls me in the morning;

γ) to get some one to do something: I got a porter to put my trunk on the cab;

δ) There is no telling (One cannot tell) § 89 — There is nothing to be done § 79 — It could not be found — It could not be (It might have been) expected otherwise — One (You) might have expected something else. —

Merke: Holen lassen to send for somebody (something) — wissen lassen to send word, to let one know, to drop a line — warten lassen to keep waiting oder einfach to keep (excuse my keeping you [my having kept you] so long) — grüßen lassen to wish to be remembered to some one, to present one's compliments (one's kind regards, one's love) to some one (Supplement No. 51).

d) Der Infinitiv mit to im Werte von Nebensätzen:

1. im Werte eines Objekt- oder Subjektsages. Nach den Verben to learn, to teach, to understand, to know steht neben einfachem to zuweilen how to oder ein anderes Fragewort vor to, wodurch dann der folgende Infinitiv als verkürzter Fragesatz erscheint. He did know how to make

use of them. — He knew how to help himself. — At a loss (= Not knowing) what to do, . . . — Not knowing what to do, where to go, whom to apply to for assistance, he entirely lost his head. — How to get out of the difficulty was a puzzle to him (= He was puzzled by the question as to how to get out of the difficulty); —

2. im Werte eines adjektivischen Nebensatzes: Watt was the first to invent a real steam engine = was the first who invented . . . We were the last to come in [= the last that came in] just in time before the gate was shut. — She was the only one to get a prize (= the only one who received a prize, Prämie);

3. im Werte eines Adverbialsatzes:

α) final —, wobei — statt des einfachen to — zuweilen das vollere in order to eintritt: (In order) to overawe the citizens of London, William had a fortress built where the Tower of London now stands = (in order) that he might overawe . . . 64, 32. They went down to Portsmouth to say good-bye to Captain Wilson.

Hat der Infinitiv sein eigenes — von dem Subjekt des regierenden Verbs verschiedenes — Subjekt, so wird er mit for angeschlossen: Architects build houses for other people to live in — The teacher sets the lessons for the pupils to do them; § 70, 8; 77, 26; 82, 16; 68, 23.

β) konsekutiv — nach vorausgehendem too, enough, — oder nach such, so, in welchen letzteren beiden Fällen der Infinitiv mit as to angefügt wird. § 56, 37. — These objections were not strong enough to prevent Stephenson from persevering 71, 31 — Be kind enough (Be as kind as) to open the gate for me — § 62, 11 — He so acquitted himself as to please everybody — § 58, 24 — Put on your gloves so as to be ready.

Hat hierbei der Infinitiv sein besonderes Subjekt, so wird er mit for angeschlossen: This was too difficult a task for him to carry it through alone by himself;

γ) konditional: — To see him, you might take him for a cabman;

δ) modal — nach Ausdrücken der Gemütsbewegung, wie: — I am happy (sorry) to say 83, 1 — It appears strange to say — One would not be surprised to learn (to hear) — u. a.;

ε) mehrfacher Deutung fähig erscheint der Inf. in Wendungen, wie: — a fine thing to look at — no pleasanter sight to look at 68, 14 — a good mark for the enemy's riflemen to shoot at 74, 30 — years of trouble and sorrow to look back upon 78, 8 — no floods to speak of 82, 12;

ζ) scheinbar absolut — d. h. scheinbar ohne bestimmtes Subjekt steht der Inf. — konsekutiv und final — in einzelnen Wendungen, wie: to judge from his exterior, he looked like a cabman. — Tatsächlich liegt nur Unterdrückung eines Satzgliedes vor: if one were to judge from his exterior, one would say that he looked . . . — To cut a long story short, he lived for many years and died happy. — Ähnlich (nur in abgeklappter Bedeutung): To be sure „sicherlich“.

§ 88. Das Partizip (Participle) — eine adjektivische Verbalform (39, 29; § 69 c) — wird als Adjektiv und als Verbum vermandt.

1. **Als Adjektiv** wird das Partiz. wie jedes andere Adj. kompariert und (in einzelnen Fällen) nach Anhängung von -ly als Adverb verwandt: charming; more (most) charming; charmingly.

Es steht attributiv, prädikativ und substantivisch: a wounded man, a charming place — Nelson was wounded at the battle of Trafalgar (1805) — this place is charming — the wounded die Verwundeten (§ 55 a); the unemployed die (unbeschäftigten) Arbeitslosen.

An unheard-of (a much talked-of) event — an attentively listened-to story — the most laughed-at person.

Auch zur Bildung von zusammengesetzten Hauptwörtern findet sich das Partizip: a shooting star (= a star which shoots, or falls, down from the skies) Sternschnuppe.

2. Als Verb

a) dient es zur Bildung der progressiven Konjugationsform (39, 35) und des Passivs (§ 81a; § 81b. A. 2): letters are written home regularly once a week — the letters are being written now —

schließt es sich an einen Kasus eines Haupt- oder Fürwortes an, das ihm als logisches Subjekt dient. Als solches heißt es verbundenes Partizip (connected participle). Scotland enjoys a very mild climate for a country lying so far north. § 36, 8; 56, 18; 60, 15; 64, 41; 66, 25.

b) Das **verbundene Partizip** steht im Sinne eines — attributiven — oder eines adverbialen Nebensatzes.

Diese attributiven Nebensätze sind **Relativsätze**; die **Adverbialsätze** sind — temporal (mit: als, während, nachdem) — modal (mit: indem) — kausal (mit: da, weil) — konditional (mit: wenn, falls) — konzessiv (mit: mag (ich) auch, selbst wenn, wenn auch).

A penny saved is a penny got. — A fault once denied is twice committed. — Coming out of his tent, Gilbert got killed by a spear 59, s. — Succeeding or failing, I must do something to save them. Part of the English, not perceiving the snare, followed them 64, 8.

Trusting to the strength of his position, Harold began the battle the next day 63, 39. — Money badly spent is of no use. § 71, 27.

Zur deutlicheren Hervorhebung des logischen Verhältnisses, in welchem das verbundene Part. zum Hauptsatz steht, treten zu dem Part. zuweilen noch **Konjunktionen** hinzu, wie **when, while, if, though, unless**: — The tenant was obliged to fight under his lord's banner, without pay, when called to arms 65, 4. His death was caused by an injury which he had received while personally engaged in laying out the towers for the bridge 57, 1. Though severely wounded he continued stubbornly fighting. — Money, if badly spent, is of no use. — Unless attacked, or suddenly disturbed, most wild animals flee from the presence of men. § 77, 22.

Zuweilen fällt hierbei das Partizip being aus: when finished 48, 4.

Merke: when due nach Verfall — when received nach Empfang — when (still) a boy (schon) als Knabe. — while there he died dort starb er.

c) Prädikativ steht das Partizip:

a) im Anschluß an das Subjekt

in einzelnen Wendungen bei den Verben der Bewegung oder der ruhigen Haltung, wie to come, to go, to go about — to remain, to lie, to stand u. a.: — he came running — he remained sitting — the French army lay encamped at Boulogne (in 1805), waiting for the combined French and Spanish fleets to make their way up the Channel. —

Oft wird hierbei das englische Partizipium im Deutschen durch die — kopulativ angereicherte — finite Form des Verbs wiedergegeben: they stood gazing at the ships 68, 20 sie standen und staunten .. an — He stood looking upward — The dog lay sleeping by the fire (am Kamin); —

β) im Anschluß an das Objekt

nach den Verben der sinnlichen Wahrnehmung und nach to find: § 24, 27; 35, 30. — I heard him singing; passivisch: he was heard singing. — We saw (found) them smoking; passivisch: they were seen (found) smoking. — We saw the metal beaten into thin plate; —

ferner — das Part. Pers. — nach to have und to get in der Bedeutung „lassen“, „veranlassen“, wobei das Part. hinter dem Objekt-akkusativ steht. Queen Victoria's husband had the Crystal Palace put up in Hyde Park 27, 19 — William got reinforcements sent from Normandy 64, 26. — § 64, 27; 64, 33; 28, 10. — I am sorry I kept you waiting. — He desired me to get a letter written to him. — He has (gets) his clothes made in London. —

Beachte: I have cut my hair, I am having my hair cut. I am going to have my hair cut; I shall have my hair cut. — I had my hair cut; I had cut my hair.

I had a pair of trousers made; I had made a pair of trousers.

Anm. Nach den Verben der Wahrnehmung steht auch der Infinitiv, mit dem Unterschied, daß das Part. eine in einem bestimmten Falle vor sich gehende, sich — in dem Augenblicke der Wahrnehmung — gerade vollziehende Handlung bezeichnet. They can see Tim's father waiting for them on the platform 35, 30. The Spaniards saw a level island rise (warum nicht rising?) before them 68, 12. § 36, 8.

There is the train, I see it coming. Whenever I see the train stop at this station, I generally find somebody get out whom I know.

d) Ebenfalls prädikativ — im Anschluß an das Subjekt oder das Objekt — steht das aktive Partizip zuweilen mit passiver Bedeutung: the bridge was constructing (57, 32) = was being constructed (oder was in construction). — Preparations were making for

battle = were being made. — You will see the ships repairing = being repaired. — The book is printing = is being (oder getting) printed. — I came in just as the cloth was laying (= was being laid) for dinner, — as the table was clearing (= was being cleared). — The eggs are boiling = are being boiled. — The street is sweeping = is being swept. — The horse was shoeing = was being shod.

Wendungen dieser Art sind jedoch nur dann zulässig, wenn das Subjekt die Handlung nicht selbst tun kann, also ein Mißverständnis unmöglich ist. Ganz unmöglich z. B. wäre: the driver was offering a glass of beer im Sinne von: was being offered a glass of beer.

Vgl. § 79, Anm. 3. — Nach dem Sprachbewußtsein des heutigen Engländer liegt hier ein Partizipium vor; sprachgeschichtlich betrachtet allerdings zeigen einzelne dieser — oder der in c) besprochenen — Wendungen eine Vermengung des Partizipiums mit dem jetzt veralteten Gebrauch der zu abgeschwächten Präpositionen on oder in mit nachfolgendem Gerundium (§ 22 c, A.).

e) Losgelöst von dem Subjekt des regierenden Satzes steht das **Partizip mit eigenem Subjekt** in einer Satzfügung, die gewöhnlich als die absolute Partizipialkonstruktion (absolute participle) bezeichnet wird. In dieser Konstruktion, welche im heutigen Englisch seltener zu werden beginnt, steht das Subjekt des Partizips im Nominativ: He being absent, I must stay at home. — She failing in her promise [= She not having kept her promise], I never again mentioned the subject to her.

Ein auf diese Weise verkürzter Adverbialsatz — nominative absolute phrase — ist seiner Bedeutung nach entweder temporal oder kausal, konditional, modal:

The English and the French languages existed for two centuries side by side; the upper classes talking French, the lower ones English und zwar sprachen . . . oder: es sprachen nämlich . . . 63, 27. § 79, 40; 71, 88. Edward the Confessor having died, William laid claim to the English throne — I will start to-morrow, weather permitting oder God willing (= if weather permits; if God wills) — It being very close in the room, we opened the window (= because it was . . .) — There being no carriage, we had to walk — Off went the coach, horses galloping, the band playing, boys cheering, dogs barking.

In einzelnen Wendungen bleibt hierbei das Partizip being weg: the ceremony over, people soon dispersed —; so auch in: this done, — this said, — all things considered, u. a.

Auch ohne Subjekt findet sich diese Konstruktion in einigen Verbindungen, wobei dann als Subjekt ein unbestimmtes Fürwort (one oder people = „man“) hinzugebracht wird. Counting (including) yourselves, how many people were there left in the room? (= if one counts) — Taking every thing into consideration, our situation is not so bad after

all (= one taking, i. e. if one takes . . .) — The national anthem was sung standing (= all people standing). — Judging from the barometer, which has not risen at all, the rain is likely to continue.

Caution: **Beim verbundenen Partizip** steht das **Subjekt nur einmal**; stehen im Englischen zwei Subjekte, eines beim Partizip, ein zweites beim Verb des regierenden Satzes, so kann es sich nur um zwei verschiedene Subjekte — also um den nominative absolute — handeln: Our guest, having arrived, was asked to sing (hier singt der Gast: verbund. Partiz.); — aber: Our guest having arrived, he was asked to sing (hier stehen zwei Subjekte, eines beim Partizip; eines beim regierenden Verbum: es singt also nicht der Gast, sondern (ihm zu Ehren) ein anderer, bereits anwesender Herr = nominative absolute).

89. a) Das Gerundium — die zweite Substantivform des Verbs (§ 69 a; 40, 1—4; 39, 30) — hat teils verbalen, teils substantivischen Charakter.

Als Verb steht es ohne Artikel und hat den Kasus hinter sich, den das betreffende Verb erfordert: Buying useless things is wasting money. — Listening frequently to good speakers improves one's pronunciation. — Travelling so frequently and so quickly without a stop wearied him.

Als Substantiv steht es mit dem Artikel und nimmt ein Attribut (im Genitiv mit of [bei Verben mit Akkus.] — oder ein Adjektiv) zu sich: While at Lisbon, Columbus supported his family **by the making of maps** (oder: by making maps) 67, 15. — **By making roads** (oder: by the making of roads) over the southern part of the island, the Romans were able to reach any part in a short time with their troops 61 10.

Making roads das Straßenbauen; the making of roads das Bauen von Straßen. — Making maps das Kartenanfertigen; the making of maps die Kartenanfertigung. —

A barking of dogs heard at a distance helped us to find our way through the dark. — Quick travelling is generally very expensive. — Frequent listening to good speakers improves one's pronunciation.

Manche dieser Verbalsubstantive sind völlig zu Substantiven geworden, bilden einen Plural und dienen zur Bildung zusammengesetzter Substantive (40, 5): clothing Kleidung — meeting Versammlung — gathering Versammlung — cycling Radeln — surroundings Umgebung — proceedings Verfahren — the doings of a person Handlungen (Aufführung und Benehmen).

In der Wortzusammensetzung (53, 9) erscheint das Gerundium — teils als Bestimmungswort (53, 26): shooting-grounds (Schießstand = grounds for shooting) — teils als Grundwort (53, 27): pigeon-shooting (Taubenschießen = the shooting of pigeons). — Writing-desk Schreibtisch; letter-writing das Briefschreiben. — Walking stick Spazierstock — drawing-room Salon — freezing point Gefrierpunkt — leaving certificate Abgangszeugnis — deer-stalking Pirschjagd. — Wiederhole 40, 5—6.

b) Im Satz steht das Gerundium — teils ohne vorausgehende Präposition — teils abhängig von einer Präposition (40, 7):

1. ohne Präposition

a) mit dem Infinitiv wechselnd als Subjekt und als Prädikat:
 Aiming straight before you is only wasting your arrows 64, 15 = To aim . . . is . . . to waste. — Walking about (= To walk about) in the fresh sea-air has made us all very hungry 43, 35. — Swimming (= To swim) is a healthy exercise — Lying is the vice of slaves.

Merke: Das Gerundium muß stehen nach *there is no* und *it is (of) no use*:
 [There is] no smoking allowed here, Smoking is not allowed here (= To smoke is not allowed here; it is not allowed to smoke here). There's no denying it (vgl. 123, 27). There is no getting to the borders of space. There was much foolish talking. It is no use telling a lie. Vgl. 40, 9. 30, 33.

β) als Affusativobjekt

nicht bloß nach vielen Verben,

wie to begin — to continue, to go on fortfahren mit — to stop, to cease, to leave off aufhören mit — to like mögen, gern (haben) — to remember noch denken (sich erinnern) an — to forget — to prefer (es) vorziehen (zu) — to regret bedauern — to mind achten auf (not to mind nichts einzuwenden haben gegen; vgl. 20, 25) u. a.,

sondern auch nach den Adjektiven worth, near, like: — it is hardly worth mentioning erwähnenswert; a place worth seeing (sehenswert). That story contains a lesson worth considering. This matter is not worth speaking of. — She was near crying again (. . . near perishing with cold). — The sun was near setting. — It would be like taking coals to Newcastle.

Auch für das als Objektsaffusativ stehende Gerundium findet sich zuweilen der Infinitiv; das Gerundium muß aber stehen nach I cannot help (forbear, avoid) „ich kann nicht umhin, zu“ und I have done (finished): When we have done eating, we will go and see the birds. — I have not finished doing my German exercise yet. — I could not help laughing.

2. Abhängig von einer Präposition steht das Gerundium

entweder als Ergänzung — als nähere Bestimmung — eines vorangehenden Substantivs (40, 15), Adjektivs oder Verbs, —

oder im Sinne eines adverbialen Nebensatzes.

Diese präpositionale Ergänzung eines Substantivs, Adjektivs oder Verbs ist

a) attributiv nach Substantiven und Adjektiven:

We had a narrow escape from getting kept in 30, 25. — From that time onwards he repeatedly made use of this means of keeping the English in subjection 64, 36. — I have the intention of going (to go) to England next summer. — This is the easiest way of doing (to do) it. — I hope I shall have an opportunity of meeting (to meet) him this afternoon. — I have much pleasure in accepting your kind invitation. — We have no reason for telling them. — We were on the

point of leaving for the Continent when that sad news reached us. — Gilbert was on the point of leaving his tent when he was killed by a spear 59, 8.

I am **fond of learning** something about Australia. — I am glad of having an opportunity to see you (to have an opp. of seing you). — He was desirous of making (to make) our acquaintance. — Far from consenting to recognize William, Harold determined to oppose him. — Caxton soon proved capable of learning the new art of printing.

Statt busy in + *gerund* findet sich zuweisen busy + *participle*. He was busy in getting the horses ready. We found her busy unpacking her trunks (sie packte ihre Koffer aus). For many days Bob and Tim were busy (in) writing compositions.

β) präpositionales Objekt nach Verben: Bob hoped that he would **succeed in getting** into Sandhurst. — After long years of hard struggle King Alfred succeeded in defeating the Danes. — Consenting to help William did not prevent Harold from taking the English throne. — Cæsar fought against the Britons to prevent them from sending any help to their neighbours in Gaul. — As the Britons would not abstain from sending help to their neighbours in Gaul, Cæsar came and fought against them. — Are you thinking of going abroad (ins Ausland) for some time? — The Britons believed in making sacrifices to their gods. — His death was caused by an injury to his foot, which he had received while personally engaged in laying out the towers for the bridge. — We were very much surprised at not getting (not to get) any letter from you. — I was looking forward with great pleasure to making his personal acquaintance. — I do not object to doing the thing myself. — Harold had sworn to help him in securing the throne 63, 32. —

γ) Die — durch das Gerundium mit vorausgehender Präposition ausgedrückte — adverbiale Bestimmung (für welche im Deutschen meist ein vollständiger adverbialer Nebensatz steht), kann sein

temporal (40, 18) — nach den Präpositionen in, on, after, before: — In going down (= When they go down) to Portsmouth, they have to pass Godalming 44, 17. — On hearing of (= When he heard of) his arrival, Harold hastened from York to oppose him 63, 37; —

modal (40, 22) — nach: in, by, without, instead of: — He strengthened his position at Winchester by erecting a similar stronghold 64, 35. — Without waiting for all his troops to assemble, Harold began the battle the next day 61, 38. — The leading feature of this system was that a tenant, instead of paying all the rent in corn or cattle or money, paid only a portion 65, 2; —

kausal (40, 20) — nach: from, through, for, on account of, owing to: — I got kept in for not having got home in time 37, 3. — Through being left an orphan at an early age, William had had to fight hard for his dukedom 63, 28. — Caxton had become weary (65, 16) from copying so many manuscripts. — Owing to being overworked with copying manuscripts his eyes had become dim (65, 16); —

final (40, 21) — **nach**: for the purpose of, with a view to (with a view of): Phoenician sailors used to visit the British islands for the purpose of trading in tin 61, 1. — Mr. Vaughan went to Aldershot for the purpose of seeing the new air-ship. — With a view to converting the English to Christianity, Gregory sent Augustine to England. — With a view to bringing the battle to an end, William said to his archers 64, 14; —

conditional — **nach**: in case of: — please do drop me a line in case of your being prevented from coming yourself;

konjessiv — **nach**: in spite of: — In spite of having worked pretty hard, Bob had not succeeded in getting a half-holiday that time.

Bemerkung zu § 89b. Annoyed at Harold's (verstimmt darüber, daß . . .) declaring himself king of England, William started at once with an army to claim his right to the throne. — Angry at his (darüber, daß jener . . .) having deceived him in that way, he made all preparations for invading England = angry at Harold's having deceived him . . ., William of Normandy made . . . 63, 33 — All hope of his ever being found again had been given up = all hope of Leichhardt's ever being f. . . 59, 32 — On somebody's telling him they were Angles, 'Ah', he said . . . = When somebody told the young priest . . . 'Ah', he said . . . 62, 5 — Sunday passed without any man's taking notice of the keeper's being absent. — He spoke of there being a danger.

Hat der Gerundisatz ein anderes Subjekt als der Hauptsatz, so tritt es, falls es ein Substantiv ist, im flektierten Genetiv — falls es ein persönliches Fürwort ist, als Possessivpronomen — zum Gerundium.

I remember meeting (having met) the captain. — I r. the captain's meeting (having met) me. I r. his (your, her, their) meeting me. I r. our meeting them. —

He was fond of coming to see us. He w. f. of my brother's coming (going) to see him. — He had entered the room without seeing the master. He had e. the r. without the master's seeing him (without anybody's seeing him; without my [your, our] seeing him).

Anm. Da bei leblosen Gegenständen ein flektierter (sächlicher) Genetiv nicht üblich ist, da ferner im Plural der flektierte Genetiv wenig erkennbar ist, so tritt in solchen Fällen die verbundene Partizipialkonstruktion ein. It received its name from the feud, a piece of land held from a superior on condition of military or other services being rendered to him 64, 42. — None of the gentlemen objected to the ladies accompanying them. — None of the ladies objected to the gentlemen's accompanying them.

Doch auch bei Personen im Singular findet sich nach vorangehender Präposition statt des Gerundiums die verb. Part.-Konstr.: — Through William (statt William's) not recognizing the election of Stigand to the see of Canterbury, the ceremony (of William the Conqueror's being crowned King of England) was performed by the Archbishop of York 64, 29.

Überhaupt gewinnt neuerdings die verbundene Part.-Konstr. an Boden (obgleich sie in dieser Anwendung bei strengeren Stilistifern noch vielfach verpönt ist): sie findet sich, auch wenn keine Präpos. vorangeht, und sogar bei Fürwörtern: The

ladies did not object to the gentlemen accompanying them. Excuse my saying so (Umgangssprache: my oder auch me s. s.) Excuse my (daneben me) putting in a word or two. — Do you object to my (our, his, daneben me, us, him) opening the window (smoking a cigar)? — What is the use of his coming (daneben: . . . of him c.)? — He spoke of its being cold (daneben: . . . of it b. c.) — Forts were erected to prevent their landing (oder auch: them landing; neben der häufigeren Konstruktion: them from landing).

Umstandswörter. Adverbs.

§ 90. Es gibt ursprüngliche und abgeleitete Adverbien (45, 17; 52, 40): primary or original adverbs; adverbs formed by derivation or composition.

§ 91. Einfache ursprüngliche Adverbien — des Ortes: here hier, (hier)her, there da, dort, dorthin, where wo, wohin, back hinter, up hinauf, down hinab, out hinaus, off ab, weg, away weg, about herum, — der Zeit: now jetzt, once einst, twice zweimal, again wieder, then dann, damals, darauf, soon bald, ever je, never niemals, often oft, seldom selten, — der Art und Weise: too zu, even sogar, also auch, thus so, so, just, eben, quite ganz, else sonst, anders, yes ja, not, no nein, rather ziemlich, vielmehr, enough genug.

§ 92. Zusammengesetzte ursprüngliche Adverbien (45, 20): everywhere, nowhere, anywhere, elsewhere — afterwards, sometimes, meanwhile — to-day, to-morrow, yesterday, to-night heute abend — before, already, always, beforehand, — besides übrigens, außerdem, moreover überdies — wherefore, therefore — indeed, perhaps, almost, otherwise anders, sonst.

§ 93. Abgeleitete Adverbien stimmen teils mit dem Adjektiv überein, teils werden sie durch Anhängung von -ly gebildet (45, 22; 52, 41).

Anm. Eine andere Adverbial-Endung ist das alte, längst nicht mehr bildungsfräftige Adverbialsuffix -s. Beispiele — a) mit der Aussprache z: needs notwendigerweise, always, sideways von der Seite . . . — b) mit der Aussprache s: else, once, twice.

§ 94. Dieselbe Form als Adverb wie als Adjektiv (vgl. 52, 3) haben:

a) mehrere Adjektive, z. B. well (sich) wohl (befindend); gut — ill (schlimm, unwohl); übel — long, lang, lange (*longtemps*) — litte klein, wenig; much viel — far fern — near nahe Adj. und Adv. (doch nearly 1. nahezu, beinahe, 2. nahe nearly related) — late spät (lately neuerdings, vor kurzem) — pretty hübsch, Adv. ziemlich very Adj. gerade der, selbst der, Adv. sehr — fast schnell, fest — still still, Adv. immer noch (46, 9).

nur in gewissen Redensarten: hard (to work hard tüchtig, ordentlich) — loud, low (to speak, read loud, low) — straight gerade — right recht — dear teuer, cheap billig (to pay, buy, sell dear, cheap; aber to sell one's life dearly 64, 13, to love dearly (64, 22) — new laid eggs frische Eier (newly frischlich).

b) einige Adjektive auf -ly wie: jolly (I am jolly glad 30, 19), only einzig, Adv. nur, early früh, daily, hourly, weekly, monthly, yearly.

§ 95. Durch Anhängung von -ly werden Adverbien abgeleitet aus Adjektiven (45, 27): hardly kaum, badly, barely bloß, scarcely kaum, shortly binnen kurzem, justly in (ge)rechter Weise, rightly, splendidly, wisely, freely, nicely, neatly, finely, beautifully, entirely, completely, progressively, certainly — aus Partizipien: exceedingly, unceasingly, repeatedly, uninterruptedly (= without interruption) — aus Substantiven: purposely absichtlich, chiefly, namely, partly.

Ann. 1. y nach Konsonant wird i (happy): happily, easily, readily, worthily; e nach u, und l nach l fällt aus: due duly, true truly, full fully; le nach Konsonant fällt aus: noble nobly, probably, possibly, agreeably, comfortably, idle idly; — nur sole hat solely „einzig und allein“; whole stößt das e aus: wholly.

Beachte die Aussprache des l: In noble, probable usw. ist l Schlußlaut (also Gaumen=l, siehe 5, 27); in nobly, probably usw. steht l vor einem Vokal (also Zahnlaut=l, siehe 5, 25). — Deutlich beide l hintereinander sind hörbar in solely und wholly; doch jolly hat in der Aussprache nur ein l (Zahnlaut=l). § 49 A. — Unterscheide: wholly (gänzlich), holy (heilig; adv. holily) [beide mit ō] von holly (Eichpalme) [mit ɔ].

Ann. 2. Viele Adjektive auf -ly, wie friendly, lively, earthly, costly u. a. umschreiben das Adverb: — in a lively way — in a friendly manner.

§ 96. Die von Adjektiven gebildeten Adverbien auf -ly werden durch Umschreibung mit more und most, alle übrigen, soweit sie nicht die Adverbien der unregelmäßig gesteigerten Adjektive (§ 50) sind, werden auf germanische Weise gesteigert (45, 30; 52, 41):

kindly freundlich, more (most) kindly; easily leicht, more (most) easily; in the (in a) most friendly manner aufs freundlichste; — early frühe, earlier, earliest; soon bald, sooner eher, soonest am ehesten; often, oftener, oftenest; fast schnell, fast faster, fastest; — well (Adv. zu good), better, best; badly oder ill, worse, worst usw. (§ 50).

§ 97. [Lexikographisches]: at least wenigstens, not in the least nicht im geringsten — at last (at length, finally) zuletzt, to the last bis zuletzt, at the latest spätestens — at the best im besten Falle, at worst im schlimmsten Falle — at once gleich, sofort, sogleich (directly, immediately) — at that time (in those days) damals — at the same time gleichzeitig — from that time (onwards) = from that date von da(mals) an — by the by (oder: by the way) nebenbei bemerkt; aber by and by (so gelegentlich) demnächst (einmal) — by no means keineswegs — the other day neulich, the other night neulich abends — not at all gar nicht — of course natürlich — no doubt = to be sure zweifellos, sicherlich — for instance zum Beispiel (oft e. g. d. h. exempli gratia geschrieben) — at home zu Hause, home nach Hause, from home von Hause — abroad in der (die) Fremde, from abroad aus dem Auslande — no more nicht mehr (von der Menge), no longer nicht mehr (von der Zeit) — and so on und so weiter.

§ 98. „**Sehr**“ heißt **very** vor Adjektiven und Adverbien, **much** (oder **very much, greatly, highly**) bei Verben.

Vor dem Partizip des Präsens steht **very**, dagegen meist **much** vor dem des Perfekts: **very interesting, much frightened, very much surprised. I thank you very much. I am much obliged to you.**

Merke: **much** afraid sehr bange. **I like much, I like better, I like best.**

Anm. **much** ist auch Adjektiv (§ 94a; § 50 Anm. 2): **with much pleasure.**

§ 99. „**erst**“ = a) **first** „zuerst“, bei der Reihenfolge der Subjekte oder Objekte, wenn das Prädikat dasselbe bleibt.

He first intended to study classics (58, 21), but later on he studied Natural Science. It was the Americans who first established a regular steam-boat service 71, 22; the English were the second to establish one. We first spoke English, then German.

b) **erst** = **at first**, bei einer Reihenfolge der Prädikate: **anfangs, anfänglich.**

At first Hargreaves tried to keep his invention a secret from his fellow-weavers, but afterwards he moved to Nottingham.

§ 82, 35.

c) **erst** = **but, only** „nur“, „nicht mehr als“ (no more than, *frz. ne . . que*). **He is but (only, no more than) ten years old. — It is but (only, no more than) five minutes past noon. — § 66, 35.**

d) **erst** = **not . . till, not . . before, only** „nicht früher als“. **The inland exploration of Australia did not begin till fifty years after Captain Cook's discovery 58, 6. Watches (Taschenuhren) were only invented in the 15th century (were not invented till [oder before] the 15th c.) Vgl. 61, 35. Not till 1607 did England plant its first colony. Then only did England plant its first colony.**

§ 100. Häufiger als **hither** **hierher**, **thither** **dorthin**, **whither** **wohin** — **hence** **von hier**, **whence** **von wo**, **thence** **von dort** — **sind** **here, there, where** — **from here, from where, from there.**

Unterscheide: **where** **are you going?** und **where** **are you going to?** Das erste fragt ganz allgemein (na, wo willst du hin? was hast du vor?), das zweite bestimmt nach dem Ziele, auf das nach der Ansicht des Fragenden der Gefragte in dem Augenblicke lossteuert. — **You know he has moved (ist umgezogen). Oh, indeed, I didn't know. Where (has he moved) to? (aber nie: to where).**

Das relative „**wo**“ mit Bezug auf Zeitbestimmungen heißt **when** oder **that**. **Bob's first letter will not have got to his father yet at the time when (wo = in welcher) he is sending off his second 50, 4. — Now that jetzt, wo; jetzt, da 73, 35.**

§ 101. „**noch**“, immer noch **still**; noch nicht **not yet (46, 7); — 'noch'** vor Zahlausdrücken = **more, 'noch einer' one more** oder **another (46, 8), two more, three more — noch einmal once more (once again),**

twice more, three times more — ein anderer = meist: a different one, seltener another one. His fortune was wholly different 70, 19. May I offer you another (noch eine) cup of tea?

§ 102. „wie“ (46, 3) = how auf welche Weise, in welchem Maße, wie sehr — what in der Redensart: what is called? (46, 5) — as im Vergleich: so ... wie, § 54; — like (ursprünglich Adj. mit nachfolgendem Akkus.) „gleich“, „gleichwie“ vor Pronomen und Substantiv. That is (looks) just like him das sieht ihm ähnlich. § 62, 1; 62, 18.

§ 103. Deutsche Adverbien durch Verben ausgedrückt: „gern“ to be fond of, to like 45, 5; — „sicherlich“, „gewiß“ to be sure to (we are sure to get our remove 37, 34); — „vermutlich“, „wahrscheinlich“ to be likely to (hierbei ist likely Adjektiv): the general application of electricity is likely to bring about a great revolution 72, 14; — „gefälligt“ to please „belieben“: please to be seated, please (to) sit down; sit down (if you) please; vgl. 82, 44.

Verhältnißwörter. Prepositions (54, 39).

§ 104. Eigentliche Präpositionen (Prepositions properly so called).

about um . . herum	between zwischen	on, upon auf
above über	beyond jenseit	round, around herum
across (quer)über	by bei, durch, von	um
after nach	down herunter	since seit
against gegen, wider	except außer, ausge-	till, until bis
along entlang, längs	nommen	through (hindurch) durch
amid(st) mitten in	for für	throughout (ganz hin)
among unter, zwischen	from her von	durch, durch ganz
at an, zu, auf, bei	in in	to zu, nach
before vor	into hinein in	towards auf . . zu, gegen
behind hinter	inside innerhalb	under unter
below unter (niedriger	outside außerhalb,	up hinauf
als)	draußen vor	with mit
beside neben	near nahe bei, bei, unweit	within innerhalb
besides außer (ein-	of von	without außerhalb, ohne.
schließlich)	off ab von, fort von	

§ 105. Präpositionale Ausdrücke (Phrases and Participles used as [doing the work of, having the function of] Prepositions):

out of (heraus) aus	on this side (of) diesseit	but for ohne
as far as (ürtl.) bis	on the other side of	exclusive of mit Aus-
on account of wegen	jenseit	schluß von
by means of vermittelst	on board (of) an Bord	(because of) wegen
in spite of trotz	on condition of unter	by reason of
opposite (to) gegenüber	Bedingung	by virtue of vermöge,
as for was anbetrifft	up to bis zu	by dint of kraft
as to	in consequence of in-	by the side of neben
contrary to wider, ent-	folge	for want of aus Mangel
gegen	in front of vor	an

for the purpose of be-	in case of im Fall	with regard	} in Hinblick auf, in bezug auf
hufs	in the middle of mitten	to	
for the sake of um . .	in	with re-	
willen	in search (pursuit) of	spect to	
in accordance	auf der Suche nach	with refe-	} in Hinblick auf, in bezug auf
with	in conformity to gemäß	rence to	
in harmony	with a view to in Ab-	in consideration of in	
with	sicht auf	Anbetracht	
in respect of mit Rück-	in regard of in Anbe-		
sicht auf	tracht		

c/o = care of (seltener: to the care of unter Obhut von *aux soins* [*bienveillants*] de =) per Adresse, bei

according to je nach,	concerning	including einschließlich
gemäß	regarding	mit
during während	respecting	excluding ausschließlich,
owing to dank	touching	ohne
notwithstanding un-	barring abgesehen von	past nach
geachtet	saving ausgenommen	

§ 106. Alle Präpositionen regieren den Akkusativ (all prepositions govern the accusative 19, 37): of me, to me, by me, from me; of him; of her; of us; of them; of whom.

Anm. Präpositionen stehen nicht bloß vor Substantiven und Fürwörtern, sondern auch

vor Adjektiven (in einigen bestimmten Verbindungen adverbialen Sinnes): in general im allgemeinen, meistens, of old vor alters, in vain vergebens, at present jetzt . . .;

vor Adverbien: from here to there, till late in the night, at once, for ever, from above, before then, since then, all round there, until lately bis vor kurzem, from within von innen . . .; in days of yore ehemals, vormalß;

vor anderen Präpositionen: from beyond 63, 7; from behind each farmyard wall (151, 22); from under the table, from over the way; he stood over against the bank (gegenüber am jenseitigen Ufer); to within reach (range) of gunshot; not till after tea; winning by about three inches.

Bemerkung. Statt in to schreibt man into. Neuerdings gewinnt das — der zwanglosen Umgangssprache angehörende — onto (auch on to geschrieben) an Boden: He looked out of the window onto [dafür (auch in der Umgangssprache) häufiger einfach: on] the river. — He put the cup onto [dafür häufiger einfach: on] the table.

Anm. 2. Nachgestellt wird die Präposition (§ 118):

beim passiven Partizip intransitiver Verben (§ 81 c, § 83 a);

beim Infinitiv in gewissen Wendungen (§ 87);

beim Relativ- und Interrogativpronomen (§ 46 b, § 45 b);

in den Ausdrücken where . . to (= whither § 100) und where . . from (= whence, from where § 100)

und zuweilen in der Poesie: that such a king should go the fools among [Shakespeare, King Lear I. 1, 144].

Die Präposition notwithstanding „trotz“, „ungeachtet“ wurde früher ziemlich häufig nachgestellt; heute findet sich diese Nachstellung wohl nur noch in der Wendung this notwithstanding = *nonobstant* (*malgré*) *cela*.

Ann. 3. Gehört dieselbe Präposition zu mehreren Satzgliedern, so wird sie gewöhnlich nur einmal gesetzt. § 24, 28; 28, 1; 28, 4; 33, 20.

§ 107. 1. „bis“ a) örtlich = 1. **as far as** 2. **to** in der Verbindung **from . . to**; b) zeitlich = 1. **till** 2. **to** in der Verbindung **from . . to** (bei Jahreszahlen; — von der Uhrzeit **from . . till**: closed from one till three). They pass through Trafalgar Square, then go as far as Hyde Park Corner. From the Firth of Forth to the Clyde. Little is known of their history till 55 B. C. King Alfred reigned till 901. King Alfred reigned from 871 to 901. — Die Konjunktion 'bis' = till. — I say, driver, are you waiting till Nelson comes down from his column 27, 3?

„Bis“ von der Zeit im Sinne von „spätestens um“, „jedenfalls nicht später als“ = **by**. I shall reach London by the middle of October 83, 29. I shall be back by five o'clock.

2. „Gegen“ im feindlichen Sinne widerstehend, entgegenstrebend = **against**; — „gegen“, sowohl örtlich: in der Richtung auf, auf . . zu — als zeitlich: gegen, kurz vor = **towards**. — Gegen, von der Gesinnung meist = **to**. Julius Caesar fought against the Britons 61, 3. — A shower of spears was thrown towards the fire 59, 6. Towards the end of the 15th century. — Mr. V. has been very kind to you 83, 36.

3. „In“ auf die Frage wo (where, in what place)? = **in**, auf die Frage wohin (whither, where to, to what place)? = **into** (hinein in). The boys are in the bedroom. At Hyde Park Corner they get down from the bus and walk into the Park. — In gewissen Verbindungen steht in auf die Frage wohin? They get (put) the most necessary part of their luggage in the carriage 35, 6. To put in 43, 21.

„In“ vor Städtenamen = **at** [auch vor größeren Städten **at**: at Rome; vor einigen wenigen ganz großen (aus vielen Ortschaften zusammengewachsenen) Städten, besonders aber vor dem Stadtkomplex London: **in**]; „in“ vor Ländernamen = **in**. Charterhouse school is at Godalming; Godalming is in Surrey. In London. In England.

4. „Nach“ = nach einem Orte = **to**; „nach“ von der Zeit und Reihenfolge = **after**. To Godalming; to London; to Australia. Twenty minutes after the first morning bell. § 79, 13.

5. „Seit“ = **since**, wenn der Zeitpunkt, der Anfangspunkt, = **for**, wenn die Zeitdauer, der Verlauf, bezeichnet werden soll. Since the reign of Edward I. Since then seit damals. — For many centuries no foreign army has invaded England. — I have been here since Monday. I have been travelling for a month (bin seit 4 Wochen unterwegs). § 44 a, § 85.

6. „Von“ = 1. **beim Passiv** = **by** drückt den Urheber (das eigentlich tätige Subjekt) aus, — 2. **from** drückt die Entfernung, den Aus-

gangspunkt, aus, — 3. **of** drückt ein Genitivverhältnis aus (§ 38). The monument was erected by the English nation. From the top of page 49 to the last paragraph on page 58. Four miles from London Bridge.

To hear of = über, in betreff; to hear from durch: — Leichhardt has never been heard of since 59, 27. Bob heard from his father = he received a letter from his father.

Merke: to take a thing from some one einem etwas nehmen (to steal a purse, a watch from stehlen) — to conceal, to hide something from somebody verheimlichen, to keep it a secret from. § 56, 21.

off = 1. ab von, weg von; 2. abseits von, in der Nähe von. Tim pulls the counterpane off Bob's bed 16, 6. Off the Strand in einer Seitengasse des St.; off Cape Trafalgar in Spain (= auf der Höhe von ..). Anders 50, 22.

7. „**Vor**“ zeitlich: 'heute vor' = ago (nachgestellt); damals vor = earlier (oder before) nachgestellt; räumlich meist = in front of, outside; sonst = before. Two weeks ago Tim's elder brother came home from Germany. Tim's brother had returned from G. two weeks earlier (before). — In front of the door. The girls wait outside the house. — Let us try to get home before tea (noch vor dem Tee) 29, 5. Before the 12 th century, before that time.

8. „**Während**“ als **Präposition** = during; als Konj. = 1. while (whilst) rein zeitlich 2. while oder whereas = 'während hingegen', 'wo hingegen'. — During the dry season. Make hay while the sun shines. — The girls wait outside the house while the boys enter it. Whereas formerly Caxton was said by many people to have been the inventor of the art of printing, now everybody admits that this honour belongs to Gutenberg. George III had lost England a colonial empire, whereas under Victoria (in the reign of V.) she [= England] had gained another (78, 36).

§ 108. Die meisten Präpositionen treten in dreifacher Verwendung auf: örtlich, zeitlich, in übertragener Bedeutung. Most prepositions may be used in three different meanings, expressing relations — a) of place — b) of time — c) different other relations when used figuratively (metaphorically). For instance **By** expresses (denotes, implies)

1. place: § 15, 1; 15, 20.

2. time: § 83, 29;

3. (metaphorically): the instrument = by means of § 66, 41; 28, 22; 24, 28; — authorship (indicating by whom the action is done) when used with a verb in the passive voice § 36, 35; 66, 7; 58, 40 — the manner in which (in what manner). § 64, 35 — in phrases § 58, 18; 67, 2.

Merke den Unterschied von *of* und *to* in Wendungen wie *he is a (oder the) son (cousin, steward, major-domo, butler . .) of Lord R., she was the widow (wife, mother, daughter . .) of King H.* — und *he is (a) son (cousin . .) to Lord R.; she was widow (wife . .) to King H.* Die Wendung mit *of* antwortet auf die Frage: „Wessen (Sohn . . ist er)?“ — es liegt also die Anschauung eines Besitzverhältnisses vor, und es könnte auch der sächssche Genitiv stehen. Dagegen ist *.. is (a) son to ..*, eine Antwort auf die Frage: „In welcher Beziehung steht er zu ..?“ Naturgemäß ist die erste Wendung die bei weitem häufigere. *§ 55, 29; 57, 3; 62, 25; 81, 42.*

Bindewörter. Conjunctions.

§ 109. Beiordnende (co-ordinative).

a) Anreihende (copulative) — a) *affirmative*: and — also auch — likewise gleichfalls — besides außerdem — moreover überdies — as well as (both . . and) sowohl . . als auch — partly . . partly teils . . teils. — b) *negative*: nor, neither, nor either und nicht, auch nicht — neither . . nor (not either . . or) weder . . noch — not only . . but also nicht nur . . sondern auch;

b) Trennende (disjunctive): or oder — either . . or entweder . . oder; Statt either . . or steht dichterisch zuweilen noch das altertümliche or . . or.

c) Entgegenstellende (adversative): but aber, sondern — yet, still doch, dennoch — however indes, jedoch — nevertheless nichtsdestoweniger — notwithstanding nichtsdestoweniger;

d) Begründende (causal): for denn — for this (that) reason aus diesem (jenem) Grunde;

e) folgernde (consecutive): therefore deshalb — consequently folglich — owing to this infolgedessen — that's why daher — hence, thence daher — so so, daher — then so, denn, also.

§ 110. Unterordnende (subordinative):

1. der Substantiv- und Fragesätze (introducing subjective, objective, interrogative clauses): that daß — if ob — whether ob — whether . . or ob . . oder (vgl. § 86 a H.).

2. der Adverbialsätze (introducing adverbial clauses):

a) des Ortes (local): where wo, wohin — whither wohin — wherever wo auch immer, wohin auch immer;

b) der Zeit (temporal): after nachdem — as als, während, indem — as soon as sobald als — as long as so lange als — before (ere) ehe, bevor — no sooner . . than kaum . . als — since seitdem — till, until bis — when wenn, als — whenever jedesmal wenn — while (whilst) während;

c) des Grundes (causal): as da — because weil — since da nun einmal, da ja;

d) der Absicht oder des Zweckes (final): that, daß, damit — in order that damit, lest damit nicht;

e) der Folge (consecutive): (so) that (so) daß — so much so that so sehr daß — to such an extent that in solchem Umfange (Maße) daß;

f) der Bedingung (conditional): if wenn, falls — unless wenn nicht etwa, außer wenn — on condition that unter der Bedingung, daß — provided (that) vorausgesetzt daß — in case (that) im Falle daß — as if, as though wie wenn, als ob;

g) der Einräumung oder des Hindernisses (concessive): though (although) obgleich, obgleich — notwithstanding (that) obgleich — however wie auch immer — even if, even though selbst wenn — as (nachgestellt) wie auch — except (save) that abgesehen davon, daß;

h) der Vergleichung (comparative): as wie — as if als ob denn etwa — as far as soweit als — in proportion as in dem Maße wie — according as sowie, insofern, je nachdem.

Hierher gehören auch —

a) die eine Wechselbeziehung bezeichnenden konjunkionalen Ausdrücke (here belong the correlative conjunctions): as .. as wie .. so — as .. so wie .. so — not so .. as — than (nach einem Komparativ) als —

β) die Bindewörter des Gegensatzes (the adversative conjunctions expressing comparison by way of opposition or contrast): whereas (whilst) wohingegen, während — while on the contrary während im Gegenteil — when während doch (he chose to turn highwayman when he might have continued an honest man).

Note: There are no modal conjunctions in English: adverbial modal clauses are in English expressed — either by a participle (= indem... § 88 b, page 243) — or by a gerund phrase introduced by the prepositions: by indem, in indem, without ohne zu, instead of anstatt: (§ 89 b γ, page 248).

§ 111. but (Grundbedeutung: „außer“, vgl. plattdeutsch buten) dient

1. als **Präposition** = außer, als (except) nach no, any und deren Zusammensetzungen, sowie nach Superlativen:

It was too great an undertaking to be assigned to anybody but the first engineer of the day 56, 37. **§** 64, 29. He had no choice but to show himself 77, 17. The last piece and the last but one (das vorletzte 81, 26); nothing else but nichts weiter als.

Merke: **all but** beinahe — **anything but** nichts weniger als (alles andre, nur nicht) — **but for** (doch so geschah es nicht wegen =) ohne — **I cannot but** ich kann nicht anders als, kann nicht umhin zu.

2. als **Adverb** = nur, erst. He has but little money. — It is but ten minutes to (erst zehn M. vor voll).
3. als **beordnende Konjunktion** = aber, sondern. **§** 61, 1; 57, 3; 17, 4; 21, 1,

4. als unterordnende Konjunktion

- a) nach einem verneinten Hauptsatz = „welcher nicht“. There was none so poor but had some cause to be glad 78, 35. There is no one in Sydney but regards his statue with admiration 81, 29;
 b) nach verneinten Ausdrücken des Zweifels und Zeugens = „daß“: They did not surrender, never doubting but that (dafür häufiger einfach that, welches allenfalls auch ganz fortbleiben kann) help would come. I do not deny but (statt but ist gebräuchlicher that) I may be mistaken 82, 22.

§ 112. Both . . and (vgl. Luthers 'beides . . und'), as well as = sowohl . . als auch. As well as wird gewöhnlich nicht getrennt. All the men of his own kingdom, as well as those of Northumbria, became Christians 62, 28 = both all the men of h. o. k. and those of N.

Wortstellung. Order of Words.

§ 113. a) Hauptregel für die Wortstellung in Haupt- und Nebensätzen: Das Subjekt steht vor dem Prädikat; das Regierende vor dem Regierten. § 22, 19—23.

b) Betonte Satzglieder werden besonders hervorgehoben entweder durch die Stellung an den Anfang oder das Ende des Satzes: Off they go, passing through Trafalgar Square 28, 1. § 74, 21; 71, 28 —

oder durch Umschreibung mit dem stets im Singular gebrauchten it is (was), dem — entweder die Konjunktion that (daß) — oder ein Relativ folgt. It was they who called that colony New York 56, 28. § 72, 39. It was greatly owing to the influence of his wife that the king suffered himself to be baptized 62, 24. § 74, 22.

§ 114. Inversion (Umstellung) des Subjekts tritt ein:

- a) in direkten Fragen mit und ohne to do, falls nicht das Subjekt ein Fragepronomen oder Beziehungswort zu whose, dem Genitiv des Fragepronomens, ist; das Subjekt steht bei der Inversion hinter dem ersten Hilfsverb (unmittelbar hinter dem finiten Teil des Prädikats). Doesn't Parker ring the bell loud enough? 15, 13; vgl. 23, 1—10 und § 77, A. 4.

Anm. In rhetorischen (nicht wirklichen) mit what a (Plur. what) eingeleiteten Fragen steht die Inversion ebenfalls nicht, vgl. § 45 c.

- b) in verkürzten Bedingungssätzen ohne if, in denen dann in einfachen Zeiten wie bei der Frage die Umschreibung mit to do steht. Did any one fail [= If any one failed] to answer to the call, he would be punished 65, 4. § 73, 43. § 86 d 3. A. 1. Seite 238.

- c) in **Wunschfäßen**: Long live the Queen! May her kingdom ever flourish! § 74, 18. § 86 a.
- d) wenn ein **prädikatives Adjektiv** oder eins der Fürwörter this, that, such, what, whatever den Satz beginnt: those were prophetic words 62, 9. Such were their hopes (§ 44 c).
- e) wenn no sooner . . than kaum . . als, neither und nicht, nor auch nicht, never nie, little wenig u. a. **verneinende** und **beschränkende Partikeln** den Satz beginnen, bei denen dann in einfachen Zeiten wie in der Frage die Umschreibung mit to do steht.

No sooner did William, Duke of Normandy, hear of Harold's election, than he laid claim to the English throne 63, 11; § 56, 41; 59, 26; 60, 33; 61, 22; 72, 22; 72, 41; 79, 33. He is not rich; nor is she (sie auch nicht).

- f) häufig in **Zwischensätzen**, besonders wenn es Substantiv ist.

'Do you see St. Paul's?' says the Master to Tim. 'Yes, I do', says Tim 26, 4 — 'All right, you young gents', he says 27, 38; § 62, 5—7; 26, 3—5.

- g) häufig wenn eine **adverbiale Bestimmung** den Satz beginnt und das **Prädikat** ein **intransitives Zeitwort** oder ein **Passiv** ist.

On a sideboard at one end of the hall were laid the Indian treasures referred to above 55, 39. § 56, 1; 56, 19; 56, 25.

- h) gewöhnlich wenn eins der Adverbien **thus, here, there, then** den Satz beginnt, das Subjekt ein Substantiv ist und das Verb kein Objekt hat. There is Rover, there he is 34, 31; § 58, 26; 61, 2.
- i) stets nach there is, there are und nach **there vor** einem **intransitiven Zeitwort**. There came by a young priest 62, 3. § 69, 21. Vgl. § 41 c.
- § 115. Objekt.**

a) Treffen bei einem Verb ein Dativ der Person und ein Akkusativ der Sache zusammen, so steht der **Dativ** meist **ohne to vor** dem **Akkusativ**; hinter dem Akkusativ steht der Dativ gewöhnlich nur dann, wenn der Dativ betont oder mit ergänzenden Zusätzen versehen ist, vgl. § 84 c. The monitor brings the master the school-list 17, 20 oder auch seltener: brings the school-list to the master. — He gives Jackson no meat 23, 34 = he gives no meat to Jackson. — Parker has not given Jackson any meat = P. has not g. any m. to J. § 22, 13; 21, 22. Give my best thanks to all who have enquired after me 83, 41.

b) Nur der Akkusativ **it** steht **stets vor dem Dativ**, gleichviel ob dieser to bei sich hat oder nicht. Saunders brings it him 21, 14; 18, 86—87; 21, 11—12; 23, 32. Give it me (him, her, us, them). Give it (to) me, not to her. Give it (to) my father.

Merke: In der — recht seltenen — Verbindung them to them darf to nie fehlen.

§ 116. a) Abgesehen von enough stehen sämtliche **Adverbien vor den von ihnen bestimmten Adjektiven, Partizipien und Adverbien.** Loud enough 14, 8. Will you be kind enough to open the door for me? — He is not yet well enough to go out for a drive. — There is no hurry, we have time enough.

Anm. Auch das Adv. not folgt dieser Regel: not steht **vor dem Wort**, das es negiert. He won't do it, not he. I won't tell you, not I. — Not at all durchaus nicht — not yet (oder oft getrennt: not.. yet 20, 18; 50, 4) noch nicht — not to-day heute nicht.

Regiert not einen ganzen Satz, so tritt es zum Verb. Not steht **hinter der ersten Verbform, in Fragesätzen vor oder hinter dem Subjekt.** I won't be late again. — You are not ready. — Don't you see it? (oder Do you not see it?) 15, 1. — Doesn't Parker (does not P. oder does P. not) ring the bell loud enough? 15, 13. — I haven't finished doing my long Latin exercise yet 17, 16. —

Not steht vor dem Infinitiv, dem Partizip und dem Gerundium. At the Zoo visitors are requested not to feed the animals. Vgl. § 77 A. 3.

In Sätzen ohne Umschreibung mit to do steht not vor dem Affix., wenn dieser ein Substantiv, nach dem Affix., wenn dieser ein Pronomen ist. Tim has not his knife; he has it not (oder: Tim has not got his knife; he has not got it).

b) Das **Adverb** darf ohne zwingende Gründe das **Objekt nicht von seinem Verb trennen**; es steht in den einfachen Zeiten der transitiven Verben meist zwischen Subjekt und Verb, oder auch (besonders bei stärkerer Betonung) hinter demselben. The Queen of England justly bears the title of Empress of India 56, 5 = bears the title of.. justly. — I badly want my uncle 46, 24 = I want my uncle badly. — We enjoy our trip much 46, 28 = we much enjoy our trip.

Anm. Merkwürdig ist die Stellung des Adverbs zwischen to und seinem Infinitiv: It is necessary to clearly understand this point. — Dafür ist viel häufiger: .. to understand this p. clearly, oder: .. clearly to u. this p.

c) In fester Verbindung mit einem Verb auftretende **Adverbien**, wie up, down, on, out, forth, back, over, off, through u. a., die nach Art der deutschen trennbar zusammengesetzten Zeitwörter (vgl. 45, 36; 53, 18) mit dem Verb zu einem bestimmten Begriff verwachsen sind, stehen bei substantivischem Objekt meist vor, bei pronominalen stets hinter dem Objekt. He throws off the sheet 15, 13; he throws it off. — He pulls the blanket off; he pulls it off 15, 17. — I'll pick it up 15, 8 = I will pick up the sponge.

Take off your hat oder take your hat off; aber nur take it off.

Did you read the book through? Did you read it through? I read it through.

Anm. Bei to get steht hierbei das Adv. fast stets hinter dem Substantiv in Fällen, in denen die gleichlautende Präposition (die ja natürlich dem Substantiv voransteht), einen anderen Sinn ergibt: get the ladder down nimm die Leiter herunter; aber: get down the ladder komm (41, 5) die Leiter herunter — get the

carpet off nimmt den Teppich auf; aber: get off the c. tritt vom T. herunter — he cannot get the horse on er bringt das Pferd nicht von der Stelle; aber: he cannot get on the horse er möchte es besteigen, kommt aber nicht hinauf.

d) In den **zusammengesetzten Zeiten** der (transitiven und intransitiven) Verben steht das Adverb gewöhnlich **zwischen** dem **Hilfsverb** und dem **Hauptverb**, bei zwei Hilfsverben **hinter** (oder **vor**) dem zweiten. They would have been greatly astonished 55, 28. We have just come 43, 25. He was splendidly entertained by the Lord Mayor 56, 7. The French were very much surprised — Edward I. produced his baby son, who had shortly before been born at Caernarvon.

e) **To be** hat in den **einfachen Zeiten** das Adverb **hinter** sich (The Britons were often at war. Bob is still in bed); sonst stehen in den **einfachen Zeiten** der **intransitiven** Verben

die Adverbien, die eine **Zeit unbestimmt** angeben, meist **vor** dem Verb;

die Adverbien des **Ortes** und diejenigen, welche eine **Zeit bestimmt** angeben, meist **nach** dem Verb;

die Adverbien der **Art und Weise** meist **hinter** dem Verb.
The chief of the (old Roman) roads which still exists, runs from Richborough by way of London to Chester.

It still stands there. It still stands there now.

Anm. Als unbestimmte Zeitangaben gelten: always, ever, never, seldom generally, commonly, sometimes, often, still nach, then darauf u. a.

Als bestimmte Zeitangaben gelten: to-day, this morning, this evening, to-night, to-morrow night, last night, yesterday, last week, now, then damals u. a.

f) Treffen mehrere Adverbien zusammen, so stehen sie meist in der Reihenfolge: **Art und Weise, Ort, Zeit**.

Captain Roebling was of German origin, being born in the kingdom of Prussia in 1806 (56, 40). We get to Barnet about twelve 35, 24. A hundred pilgrims started in a little ship from Plymouth on Sep. 6th, 1620. § 64, 28; 72, 30; 71, 44; 38, 35; 57, 4; 65, 29; 69, 40.

§ 117. a) **Attributive Adjektive** oder Partizipien stehen **vor** ihrem Substantiv; **nach** demselben nur in gewissen stehenden Verbindungen, — oder wenn sie einen **ergänzenden Zusatz** haben: New York proper, Prince (Princess) Royal, Paradise Lost, heir-apparent, cousins-german u. a.

Merke: last Wednesday oder on Wednesday last, next Saturday oder on Saturday next. — the Indian treasures referred to above 55, 39. He sees its electric lights shining clear and bright as the stars 57, 14. There are elevated railways running all through Berlin — No infantry then known. § 75, 28; 76, 28; 79, 40.

Anm. Die durch einen Affusativ der Zeit oder des Maßes näher bestimmten Adjektive stehen **hinter** der Zeit- oder Maßangabe. A king ten years old. — A path 13 feet wide. — A tower 90 yards high. — A ditch two metres deep. — A board 8 inches long. — When I wound up my watch last night, I found it was three minutes slow (fast) = die Uhr ging nach (vor).

b) **all, both, double, half** haben den bestimmten Artikel hinter sich; — ebenso steht der unbestimmte Artikel an zweiter Stelle nach **half, such, many** „manch“, **what** „was für ein!“, **rather** „ziemlich“, **quite** „ganz“, — an dritter Stelle nach **as, how, so, too, however**.

All the town; both the horses; double the distance; half the time. — Half an hour, half a mile.

Such a horse, such a fine meat-tea, such a pretty girl, such a lucky escape, such an effect; — many a royal guest; many a victorious field; many a man; — what a wonderful impression! what an impression! what a fine horse! what a horse! — by rather a strange coincidence durch ein ziemlich seltsames Zusammentreffen von Umständen — rather a good bargain = a pretty good bargain ein ziemlich gutes Geschäft (ziemlich guter Handel) — quite a sad story, quite a story; quite a man; she is quite a lady.

Just as poor a man as Hargreaves 70,¹⁸ — how wonderful a development 66,²² — so powerful an emperor 55,³² — too important an undertaking 56,³⁷ — however difficult a task it was 57,¹¹.

Ann. Wie der bestimmte Artikel stehen auch die demonstrativen und possessiven Fürwörter hinter **all, both, double, half**: — all his money, all my money, all that money, all those houses; — both your letters. — He took double my time. — He spent half his fortune in travelling. Half the sum; half that sum. His salary was reduced at a stroke from 800 pounds a year to half that sum.

Der Artikel steht vor **half**, wenn dieses mit dem folgenden Substantiv zu einem Begriff verschmilzt. A half-holiday. — This clock strikes the hours and the half-hours. — Half a crown (Wert) = two and sixpence, aber a half-crown piece (Münze) — half a sovereign = 10 shillings; the half-sovereign coin. — A half-penny; two half-pennies. Twopence halfpenny [= 2½ d].

§ 118. Eine Eigentümlichkeit der englischen Sprache ist die Attraktion der **Präposition** durch das Verb; dieselbe steht **tonlos** angelehnt **hinter** dem Verb in den finiten Formen des Verbs: — in Relativ- und Frageätzen (he keeps the oar he rowed with. — What shall we look at first? (§ 46 b; § 45 b) in den infiniten Formen: — beim passiven Partizip der Verben mit präpositionaler Ergänzung (The Hudson is generally spoken of as the American Rhine, § 81 c), — beim Infinitiv (a fine thing to look at § 87 c), — und beim Gerundium (a prize well worth contending for § 89 b, A).

Satzbau und Satzumwandlung. Structure of Sentences.

§ 119. A sentence makes either a statement or judgment — or a question — or a command — or an expression of wish.

A sentence has subject and predicate. The essential part of a sentence is the finite verb.

Note. (Syntactic or) Sentence Analysis. To **analyze** a sentence means to name the constituent elements (component parts) of the sentence, such as subject, predicate, with their enlargements, etc.

Parsing. To **parse** a word means: — 1. to tell what part of speech it is (51, 35) — 2. to state in what relation it stands with the other words of the sentence, i. e. — to say what it refers to, what it belongs to, what it qualifies or modifies, what case or number it is, what it depends on, what it governs (what object it has after it, what its object is), what words or sentences it joins (what word or sentence it is joined to), to point out of what gender (masculine, feminine, neuter, common) it is — in what case or form (voice, mood, tense, number, person) it is — of what kind it is (whether demonstrative or determinative, etc., whether transitive or intransitive) — what its use is (used attributively 52, 14, predicatively, transitively) — with what it agrees in number and person.

To **construe** a sentence = to take its words in such an order as to show its grammatical construction.

Ask yourself what is the subject of this sentence? What have you to ask in order to find the subject of this sentence? Who (What person, What thing) is spoken of? — What question have you to ask (yourself) in order to find the predicate? What is said about the subject? Ask yourself what is the predicate (see 23, 1—18; 26, 16—24).

§ 120. Besides subject and predicate a sentence may have an object (direct, indirect, prepositional), an adverbial adjunct, and an attributive adjunct.

Note. An attributive adjunct (or simply: attribute) may be an adjective, — or a word, phrase, or clause¹⁾ performing the function of an adjective.

An adverbial adjunct may be a simple adverb, — or an adverbial phrase, — or an adverbial clause.

An adverb goes with a verb, — or with an adjective, — or with another adverb — to modify its meaning.

An adverb goes with a verb to modify the meaning of the action expressed by the verb, — it goes with an adjective to modify the meaning of the quality expressed by the adjective, — it goes with another adverb to modify the meaning of that adverb.

An adverb may be an adverbial adjunct relating to place, — to time, — to manner or degree, — to instrument or authorship, — to cause, — to purpose, — to condition, — to consequence, — to concession, — to comparison.

§ 121. A sentence may be simple, or compound, or complex.

A **Simple sentence** is one that has *only one* Finite verb (expressed or understood).

The sun rising with power, the fog disappeared. — Having won the battle and seized London, William caused the Archbishop of York solemnly

¹⁾ Sentence, Clause, Phrase: **Sentence** = Satz (ganz im allgemeinen), — gleichviel ob einfacher oder zusammengesetzter Satz, ob Satzverbindung oder Satzgefüge. — **Clause** = Satz als Teil eines sentence, also entweder: principal clause (or independent clause) = Hauptsatz, oder: subordinate clause (sub-clause oder dependent clause) = Nebensatz. — **Phrase** ist niemals ein „Satz“, sondern eine aus mehreren Wörtern bestehende Wendung (Satzbestimmung) ohne verbum finitum: phrase is a combination of words that does not contain a predicate expressed by means of a finite verb: — an adjectival (adverbial, prepositional, participial, a gerund) phrase.

to crown him king at Westminster Abbey, the election of the new primate of England, the Archbishop Stigand of Canterbury, not being considered lawful.

A **Compound sentence** is a co-ordination of two or more principal clauses [Satzverbindung].

The sun rose with power, and the fog disappeared. — Having won the battle, William seized London and caused . . .

Note. Compound sentences often appear in a contracted (zusammengezogen) or shortened form:

When there are two (or more) finite verbs to the same subject, the subject is not usually mentioned more than once. *Cæsar came, saw, and conquered*: compound sentence contracted in the subject = Cæsar came, Cæsar saw, and Cæsar conquered.

When there are two subjects to the same finite verb, the finite verb is not usually mentioned more than once. *Either a fool or a knave has done this*: compound sentence contracted in the predicate = Either a fool has done it or a knave has done it.

A **Complex sentence** contains (consists of) a Principal Clause with one or more Subordinate Clauses [= Satzgefüge].

As the sun rose with power, the fog disappeared. — Having won the battle and seized London, William had himself crowned by the Archbishop of York, as he refused to recognize as lawful the election of the new primate of England.

A (period or) periodical sentence (mehrfach zusammengesetzter Satz) is a long sentence with several adjuncts subordinated — either to different parts of the principal clause — or to other subordinate clauses.

§ 122. Classification of Sub-Clauses: Subordinate clauses may be classified

a) — nach ihrem Sinne, nach ihrem Werte — as to their function in the whole sentence:

The subordinate clause may be the substitute of any of the five parts of the simple sentence, i. e. it may have the function of (or: act as, or: do the work of)

- either: 1. the subject (In that case it is called a subjective clause),
- or: 2. the predicative nominative (= predicative nominative clause),
- or: 3. the object (= objective clause),
- or: 4. the attributive adjunct (= attributive clause),
- or: 5. the adverbial adjunct (= adverbial clause).

Exercise: Find out the syntactical function of the following subordinate clauses, saying whether they are subjective, predicative, objective, attributive, or adverbial: The house where I live has two gardens. — I know where I live. — The dust is a nuisance where I live. — Whatsoever is written remains. — God said unto Moses: I AM THAT I AM (Exodus III, 14 = Jehovah). — He is no longer what he used to be. — Tell me who called when I was out.

An adverbial clause relating to place is called — a local adverbial clause. Other adverbial clauses are — temporal — modal — instrumental — causal — final — conditional — consecutive — concessive — comparative.

b) — nach ihrer Verknüpfung — as to the way in which they are joined (connected) to the superordinate clause:

When introduced by a conjunction, a subordinate clause is called a conjunctive clause; — when introduced by a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb, it is called a relative clause; — when introduced by an interrogative word, it is called an interrogative clause¹⁾.

c) — nach ihrer Zugehörigkeit — their degree of subordination:

a sub-clause qualifying any word which occurs in the principal clause is subordinate to the principal clause in the first degree [= a sub-clause in the first degree];

a sub-clause qualifying a word occurring in a subordinate clause is subordinate to the principal clause in the second degree [= a sub-clause in the second degree], and so on.

d) — nach ihrer Stellung — as to their position in the whole sentence: — In English it is of little importance whether a subordinate clause is placed before or behind the principal clause, or whether it is interposed (placed) between the several parts of a principal clause, as e. g. — The Emperor William, *who had come to England to pay a visit to Queen Victoria*, was warmly received and splendidly entertained.

Note 1. An interposed clause must be distinguished from a parenthetical clause (eingefügter Zwischenatz): “Ah”, *he said*, “with faces so angellike, they should not be Angles, but angels 62, 6.”

Note 2. In a conditional sentence the clause which expresses the condition, is called antecedent (Vorderatz); the clause which expresses the result, is called the consequent (Folgeratz). — Antecedent is also the name given to that sentence (or part of a sentence) to which a relative clause refers. — The first part of correlative conjunctions (i. e. of conjunctions which go in pairs § 110h α page 258) is also called the antecedent of the second: *both . . and, either . . or, neither . . nor, not only . . but also.*

¹⁾ **Direct speech** [direct quotation without any change of form] gives the actual words used by the speaker; — **indirect** or reported speech [indirect narration with change of form] reports the substance of the words used by the speaker.

Observe

a) that the rules of the ‘Sequence of Tenses’ (§ 86a, page 234) have to be followed, and that an imperative when reported is substituted by an infinitive (preceded by ‘to’): Be quiet then, I said, and have patience = I told (begged) him to be quiet and (to) have patience;

b) that the reported speech always has ‘shall’, or ‘should’, when there is ‘shall’ in the direct speech (§ 75, 6);

c) that an adjective or adverb expressing *nearness* is changed into one expressing *distance*. By this rule we change:

now into *then*

this, these into *that, those*

hither into *thither*

here into *there*

hence into *thence*

hus into *so*

to-day into *that day*

to-morrow into *next day*

yesterday into *the previous day*

last night into *the previous night*

ago into *before*,

etc.

Note 3. Subordinate clauses which drop (leave out, omit) the relative pronoun, or the conjunction, by which they are joined (connected) to the principal sentence, are called unprepared subordinate clauses (*verfappte Nebenſätze*). — (See § 87c, page 240; § 114b, page 259; § 46b, page 196.)

§ 123. The pronoun 'it' when used to prepare the *real* (or: logical) subject, is called the (preparatory or:) 'temporary' subject (*grammatisches Subjekt*). — In a similar way the adverb 'there' is often used to prepare the real subject.

It is he that said that there were three mistakes there. — It is great pleasure to me to see you here. — It is unfortunate that the town had been so badly governed.

§ 124. Ellipsis. A sentence is said to be elliptical when it lacks a word or words which must be supplied (understood) to make its grammatical construction complete.

§ 125. Brevity of expression being characteristic of the English language, it is frequently found that ideas requiring in German a full subordinate clause are briefly and pertinently expressed in English by a participle, gerund, or accusative and infinitive.

Repeat the uses and functions of: — the participle (§ 88) — the gerund (§ 89) — the infinitive (§ 87),

and learn the Chapters treating of conjunctions (§ 109 — § 112), — prepositions (§ 104 — § 108), — and adverbs (§ 90 — § 103).

§ 126. Grammatifche Sazumwandlung. Conversion of Sentences. As has been shown by the examples given above (under § 121), a sentence may sometimes be converted to (into) another one of precisely the same meaning but of a different syntactical kind.

Thus a simple sentence can often be converted into a Compound (or Complex) one of equivalent meaning by expanding words, or phrases, into Co-ordinate (or Sub-ordinate) Clauses, — and vice versa (contrariwise, conversely): by substituting (putting in) a word, or phrase, for a clause (by using a word, or phrase, instead of [in the place of] a clause).

Exercise: Tell — in English — the changes made in the following Conversions: —

1. { *Simple.* After having stayed four days at Windsor he went up to London 56, c.
 Compound. He stayed four days at W., and then went . . .
 Complex. When he had stayed f. d. at W., he went . . .
2. { *Simple.* With his great fatigue, he soon fell sound asleep.
 Compound. He was very tired, and therefore he soon fell . . .
 Complex. As he was very tired, he soon fell . . .
3. { *Compound.* Tell me what it is called (44, 2).
 Simple. Tell me its name.

From Simple to Compound.

4. { *Simple:* Through (Owing to) continual illness Washington Roebling was forced to interrupt his work.
 Compound: He was continually ill, and so he had to . . .

5. { *Simple*: Bob had to work hard to get the scholarship.
 Compound: He had to . . . , otherwise (or else) he would not have had any chance of getting . . .
6. { *Simple*: Notwithstanding the failure of his first attempt, Dr. L. did not feel discouraged.
 Compound: His first a. failed, but yet he did not . . .
7. { *Simple*: Remembering his meeting with the Angle boys, Pope G. sent a Benedictine monk to convert the people of their country to Christianity.
 Compound: He not only remembered . . . , but actually did send out a priest to have their countrymen converted.
8. { *Simple*: Besides going to Windsor Castle, the Emperor paid a visit to the City of London.
 Compound: He not only went to . . . , but also paid . . .
9. { *Simple*: With his scarcity of provision, there was danger in delay (59, 21).
 Compound: As he had only a very short supply of provisions left (As the country afforded but little opportunity of supplementing his small stock of food), Dr. L. risked dying with hunger (risked seeing himself and his party perish with hunger), if, instead of trying to arrive at his journey's end as soon as possible, he lingered (stopped too long) on the way (he was slow in moving on).

From Simple to Complex.

10. { *Simple*: Some historians suppose those stone circles to be of pre-historic age.
 Complex: . . . suppose that . . . are . . .
11. { *Simple*: Washington Rœbling was glad of being able to work again.
 Complex: . . . was glad that he could (was able to) . . .
12. { *Simple*: No one knew anything about the (as to the) time of his arrival.
 Complex: . . . about (as to) the time when he was likely to arrive.
13. { *Simple*: On his arrival all his friends came forth to congratulate him upon his success.
 Complex: When he arrived all his friends joined in congratulating him upon . . .
14. { *Simple*: Dr. L. is by some people believed to have been eaten by the savages.
 Complex: Some people believe that . . . has been . . .
15. { *Simple*: Tell me the date and place of your birth.
 Complex: . . . when and where you were born.
16. { *Simple*: A fever, the consequence of his continually working in the mud of the water, forced W. R. to discontinue (to give up, to leave, to stop) his superintendence for some time.
 Complex: A fever, which had come from his . . . , forced W. R. to . . .

From Complex to Compound.

17. { *Complex*: Tim, who is very punctual in most cases, arrived this time after the second morning bell.
 Compound: Tim is in most cases . . . ; this time, however, he arrived . . .
18. { *Complex*: Careful as he was, Caxton nevertheless could not altogether prevent misprints.
 Compound: He was most careful, nevertheless he . . .
19. { *Complex*: I am certain that soon there will be made much more progress with regard to aerial navigation (flying-machines and airships).
 Compound: Soon there will be . . . , and of this I am quite certain.
20. { *Complex*: Had I known (If I had known) his wishes, I should have done everything to gratify his desire.
 Compound: I did not know . . . , otherwise (or else) I should have . . .

From Compound to Complex.

21. { *Compound*: He was continually ill, and therefore had to undertake a voyage to Europe.
 Complex: He had to undertake a voyage, because he was . . .
22. { *Compound*: Dr. L. felt happy in Australia, but he never forgot his old German home.
 Complex: Though he felt . . . , he never forgot . . .
23. { *Compound*: The head monitor stood up to say grace, and every one of the boys was at once silent.
 Complex: As soon as . . . stood up . . . , every one was . . . — No sooner did . . . stand up . . . , than every one was . . .
24. { *Compound*: I must work hard, otherwise (or else) I shall not get a scholarship.
 Complex: Unless I work (If I do not work) hard, I shall never succeed in getting . . .
25. { *Compound*: Work hard, and you will get your remove . . .
 Complex: If you work hard, you need not fear not to get your remove (you are sure to . . .)

§ 127. Stilistische Satzumwandlung. Stylistic Transformation. Besides converting a sentence into another one of exactly equivalent meaning, one occasionally can — without destroying the general idea of a sentence — stylistically transform it

either by slightly altering (modifying, or enlarging) some point of it,
 or by changing the relation (of either cause, or purpose, or time, &c. See § 110) denoted by one of its words (phrases, clauses),
 or by the addition (introduction) of some new point or idea, some new thought or notion,
 or by making the sentence dependent on some verb of saying, hearing, reading, etc.

Exercise. Tell — in English — the transformations made in the following sentences, stating at the same time whether the sentence is simple, compound, or complex.

- A. 1. By making several roads the Romans could get to any part of the island (61, 10).
2. (*Weaken the force of 'any'*): ... to some (to many, to most) parts ...
3. The Romans making several roads, their armies could get to ...
4. The Romans having made roads could get to ...
5. With a view to getting (of getting) to any part of the island, the Romans made ...
6. The Romans made so many roads as to be able to get to ...
7. Making roads enabled the Romans to get ...
8. ... everywhere (in all parts of the island) enabled ...
9. Without the making of roads the Romans would not have been able to get to ...
10. After making roads the Romans could get to ...
11. The Romans made roads, and so they could get to ...
12. From that time onwards roads were made, and the Romans could get to ...
13. The Roman general ordered his (troops) soldiers to make several roads (ordered several roads to be made), and so he could get to ... (and so his armies could get to ...).
14. Roads were made, only by these means the Romans could get ...
15. The Romans made roads, for they wished to get to ...
16. The Romans had to make roads, or otherwise they would not have been able to get to ...
17. The Romans are known to have made roads, so that they could get to ...
18. The Romans who had made several roads could get to ...
19. In proportion as the Romans made roads, they could get to ...
20. In consequence of roads having been made, the Romans could get to ...
21. When (Since) they had made roads, the Romans could get to ...
22. The Romans, whom we know to have made roads, could get to ...
23. The Romans, who are known to have made roads, could get to ...
24. Though the Romans did not make many roads, they succeeded in getting to ...
25. Whatever roads the Romans made, they did not succeed in getting to ...
26. The Romans, who could get to ..., had made roads.
27. If the Romans had not made roads, they would not have been able to get to ...
28. Had the Romans not made ...
29. We read that the Romans made roads, so that they could get to ...
30. Their enemies neglected making roads, but the Romans did not, and so they succeeded in getting to ...
31., the Romans, however, not doing so, succeeded in getting to ...
32. Whereas their enemies neglected making roads, the Romans did not, and so ...
33. The Britons, who saw the Romans make roads, feared that they would get [lest they should get] to ...

34. The Britons were very much afraid of the Romans, whom they saw making roads . . . (who were seen to make roads).
35. The Britons, who saw the Romans making roads, could not doubt that they soon would be able to get to . . .
- B.** 1. Columbus tried to prove to the Portuguese court that his plan of sailing to the West was quite feasible, but the king, whose interest in maritime discovery was tempered by excessive caution, deemed the project extravagant (67, 34).
2. . . . to prove the feasibility (possibility) of his plan of . . .
3. Although Columbus tried . . ., the king . . .
4. Columbus tried . . ., but as (since, because) the interest of the king . . ., he deemed . . .
5. . . ., but the interest of the king being . . ., he did not deem . . .
6. Col. knowing the king's interest . . ., tried to prove to him . . ., but the excessive caution of the monarch deemed the project extravagant.
7. . . ., but owing to the extreme caution of the king the project was deemed extravagant.

Sinngleiche und sinnverwandte Wörter, Ausdrücke des Gegenteils und der Wechselbeziehung. Synonyms, Antonyms (Opposites), Correlatives.

§ 128. Synonyms (synonymous words):

Vorbemerkung: 1. Synonyms eigentlich = „Ausdrücke gleicher Bedeutung“, words of equivalent (or identical) use and meaning.

Solcher Wörter gibt es sehr wenige: there are very few words of precisely the same meaning such as can be used interchangeably (can be interchanged);

2. gewöhnlich: = words nearly alike (only slightly differing) in meaning — words which have approximatively the same signification — ‘words of like significance in the main, but with a certain unlikeness as well’;

3. im fremdsprachlichen Unterricht rechnet man zu den Synonymen — praktisch Weise — auch solche Wörter, die in der Muttersprache des Lernenden die gleiche Übersetzung ergeben, die in der Fremdsprache jedoch streng genommen gar nicht synonym sind; z. B. reign Regierung und government Regierung;

reign = the time during which a king or other monarch possesses the supreme authority: — in the ~ of Queen Victoria 55, 26 = under Q. V. 78, 37;

government = 1. the act or mode (form) of governing (of exercising authority), — 2. the ruling power or administration;

4. viele Synonymen lassen sich schwer genau bestimmen. Oft entscheidet das Sprachgefühl besser als die feinste Begriffsbestimmung. Sprachgefühl erwirbt man durch vieles Lesen, besser und leichter aber noch durch vieles Hören der lebendigen (gesprochenen) Sprache. Der Begriffsumfang einzelner Synonyme ist so groß, daß sie für gewisse Bedeutungen zwar streng geschieden sind, für andere ganz oder nahezu ineinander übergehen, z. B. to beat und to strike, to follow und to succeed, to hold und to keep, while und whereas, u. a. m.

Merke: This word is synonymous with . . ., is a synonym for . . .

a) Verben.

1. to **accept** = (Angebotes) annehmen 56, 34 — to **adopt** (in ein verwandtschaftliches [inniges] Verhältnis) aufnehmen, annehmen, sich zu eigen machen: an ~ ed child, an ~ ed country 58, 27; to ~ (French) manners and customs 63, 25;

to **receive** = 1. empfangen, erhalten, bekommen [to become = „werden“: § 81 b A. 2] — 2. (Besucher, Gäste, Abordnungen) empfangen, annehmen, aufnehmen, bewillkommen 56, 11. — *reception* Empfang, Aufnahme, Bewillkommung: a warm ~ 72, 32; ~-room Empfangszimmer. — *receipt* Empfang, Quittung, Einnahme: to be paid on ~; to give a ~ (to ~) quittieren; book of ~s and expenditures Einnahme- und Ausgabebuch.

to **obtain** = (mühsam Erstrebtes endlich wirklich) erlangen: to ~ a reward (a recompense), an office (a post, a situation).

to **get** = 1. to receive [in erster Bedeutung], — 2. = to obtain: — 40, 33; to ~ a scholarship 31, 14; to ~ one's remove 37, 34 veretzt werden.

2. to **bear** = tragen, ertragen: to ~ pains, trials, a burden (one's fate) nobly and patiently (without murmuring) — take a bath as hot as you can ~ it — I cannot ~ this state of things any longer — to ~ criticism — to ~ a name (58, 1; a title, a date) — plants (trees) ~ leaves, flowers, fruit — the earth ~s animals, vegetables, gems, metals — female mammalia and women ~ (give birth to) offspring [über borne, born, vgl. § 71 I].

to ~ on = to exert a practical influence on, einwirken auf, to affect, to have reference to.

bearings = 1. Beeinflussung, Einwirkung, Beziehungen 66, 28. — 2. to take (to find) one's ~ sich orientieren, sich erst einmal zurechtzufinden suchen.

to **endure** = 1. andauern 69, 12 — 2. geduldig aushalten, ertragen: to bear with patience (§ 46 c).

to **suffer** = 1. erleiden, ertragen: to ~ pain of body or sorrow (grief of mind) — 2. leiden, zulassen 62, 27, lassen (§ 87, S. 241).

to **undergo** = erleiden, ausstehen: to ~ much suffering 58, 12; a great deal of hardship 82, 37, — erfahren, unterliegen: to ~ a great change, a surprising transformation.

to **wear** = 1. (an seinem Leibe) tragen, (Kleider, Schuhe, Handschuhe) anhaben, (eine Kopfbedeckung) aufhaben, (Schmuck) tragen — 2. (sich) abnutzen (§ 75 c).

The Sixth-Form Eton boys ~ coat-tails, a white waistcoat, top-hat, and patent-leather shoes as an ordinary everyday costume — The fashion of ~ ing flowers in one's button-hole has much gone out now — Ladies ~ kid-gloves, men often ~ buff or other stout material gloves — Brooches, jewels, necklaces, rings, bracelets are ornaments worn by females — Uneasy lies the head that ~s a crown [Shakespeare, 2 Henry IV, III, 1]. — The boots he wore were quite worn (worn out, worn down at the heels).

to **carry** = tragen, (aufhebend) forttragen: take this carpet-bag up stairs; don't drag it along the floor, carry it.

to ~ a stick, an umbrella, a parcel, a basket, a satchel, a portmanteau, a hold-all, a child.

a railway-carriage (oder: a wagon; ältere Schreibung: waggon) ~ing 40 people, — a boat ~ing 2 persons only.

In doing sums (in the elementary operations of arithmetic): to ~ = to transfer (a number, cipher, or remainder) to the next column or unit's place: You are to put down the 4 and carry 2 — To carry as many to the next figure as were borrowed before. — A loan (a capital) ~ing 5 per cent interest (interest at 5 per cent).

to *carry on* weiterführen, fortsetzen.

3. to beat = 1. (wiederholt) schlagen, durchprügeln: to strike repeatedly, with repeated blows (in sign of sorrow, in order to punish) — 2. schlagen, besiegen: to conquer (besiegen) in battle, or to overcome in any other contest, at doing anything — 3. the heart (pulse) ~s (pulsates) — 4. to ~ time Takt schlagen: to mark musical time by tapping with the hands, or by striking the air with a baton.

to **strike** = 1. einen Schlag versetzen, treffen: to give a blow to (either with the hand, or with any other instrument or missile) — 2. schlagen, prägen: to stamp with a stroke, to ~ coin (money) at the mint — 3. stark auf das Gemüt einwirken: (to make a sudden impression by a blow or some strong emotion) to ~ one (one's mind) with wonder, admiration, alarm, dread, terror: to be *struck with* horror . . . ganz ergriffen (erschüttert, betroffen, verblüfft) sein von . . . — 4. ertönen (lassen), to cause to sound by one or more beats, schlagen von der Uhr: the clock strikes nine, the drums strike up a march — 5. streichen = to let or take down: to strike a flag (= to haul down a flag 73, 17); to ~ colours die Flagge streichen (as in token of surrender) — 6. hervorreiben, to cause or produce by a stroke: to strike a light, to ~ a match anzünden — 7. to ~ work, to ~ die Arbeit einstellen = to quit work in order to compel an increase, or prevent a reduction, of wages.

to **slay** = erschlagen, niedermachen 63, 44 = to lay low 64, 20 zu Boden strecken.

to **kill** = to deprive of life (animal or vegetable) by any means, or in any manner, either by malicious forethought or by accident: töten 59, 8 — schießen: they went out shooting and ~ed two grouse and three partridges — schlachten: on a hot day like this butchers do not ~ in the afternoon — to ~ two birds with one stone — alkali kills acid — to ~ (= to ruin) one's chances — to ~ time.

4. to bring = (zum Sprechenden heran)bringen 21, 14 — ebenso to get bringen, holen 20, 31: if you are going to the cupboard, bring me (you might get me) my jam — mit herbringen 43, 26; 61, 31. The postman comes to our house and brings us letters.

to **take** = (vom Sprechenden fort)bringen: take this card to Captain Wilson 43, 18. If you happen to go past the post-office, take this letter there.

5. to choose = wählen, sich nach eigenem Ermessen eine (oder mehrere) Person(en) oder Sache(n) aussuchen 38, 28; 56, 35; to choose the least of two evils. — To ~ to = to decide in accordance with inclination sich dafür entscheiden zu, es vorziehen zu, mögen, belieben; not to ~ to = es unterlassen zu: Whenever he meets or passes me in public now, he chooses

to cut me dead (he affects not to see nor know me; he does not choose to see or know me) — I cannot ~ but stay *ich muß bleiben*.

Ähnlich to select = mit ganz besonderer Sorgfalt auswählen, auslesen.

to elect = wählen, (durch Wahl, Abstimmung, Auslosung u. dgl.) bestimmen, ernennen 63, 9.

choice, election.

6. to declare = erklären: 1. bestimmt aussagen, eine bestimmte Aufgabe machen, feierlich behaupten 63, 31 — to make a full statement of goods, etc., for paying taxes, duties (Eingangszoll), &c. — Anything to declare? Haben Sie etwas Steuerpflichtiges? — 2. to declare war.

declaration: a ~ of war — the American D ~ of Independence 1776.

to explain = erklären: den Sinn (die Bedeutung) einer Stelle, eines Ausdrucks, die Ursache eines Vorfalles aufhellen: to ~ the meaning of a passage, of a contract, of a treaty = to give an *explanation* of.

7. to follow folgen = hinterherkommen (örtlich, zeitlich, auch vom Range): to come after, to come next (2, 7; 61, 42).

to succeed (sich) folgen = 1. ordnungsmäßig hinterherkommen: autumns succeeds summer — 2. to ~ (to) a person jemandes Nachfolger (im Amt, in der Regierung, im Besitze eines Hauses, eines Geschäftes) sein: the king's eldest son succeeds his father on the throne [aber ohne Angabe des Vorgängers: he succeeds to the throne — to ~ to an estate ein Gut erben] — successor, predecessor, to precede — 3. to ~ in (+ ger) = das Glück haben zu, gelingen [Gr. § 81, 2]: Nothing ~ s like success die Welt geht nur nach dem Erfolge.

Merke: Für „gelingen“ sagt man in der Umgangssprache oft to “manage” (es fertig bringen): ‘Could you not manage it?’ ‘I could not manage to find the house’. § 60, 14; 83, 2.

8. to go gehen = sich (gehend, fahrend, reitend usw.) fortbewegen: = to be in motion, to pass from one place to another: — to go on horseback, by rail, by steamer, by balloon, by aeroplane, by motorcar, by taxi 31, 1; 54, 17 — to go to America (reisen nach . . .; aber to travel in America reisen in . . .) — to go for a walk (a drive oder a ride in a carriage, a ride on horseback) ausgehen, -fahren -reiten, [to be out for a walk, to be taking a walk spazieren gehen].

to go to see (jemand anders) besuchen; aber to come to see wenn jemand anders den Sprechenden besucht: I went to see him in the morning, and he came to see me in the afternoon.

Merke: Besuch, besuchen = to look in (to drop in* at somebody's) in passing (vertraulich) — to call on a person, at somebody's place (house) — to make, pay (or receive) a call = to make, pay, or receive, a short and usually formal visit: — Have many visitors called to-day? We passed without a call to-day. — She made a morning call on Mrs. V. — Call in some time during the day. — Visiting-cards — to see sights (the sights of a place): to spend a whole morning in sight-seeing — to go to see a museum, a picture gallery — a physician goes (comes) to see (calls upon, visits) his patients — a bishop visits his diocese, an inspector of schools visits the schools under his charge — a boy goes to school, is at school, attends school regularly — to attend church, a place of worship, a funeral, a meeting.

I am going to = ich will: 1. jetzt gleich: ich stehe im Begriff, zu = I am on the point of, *I am about to* — 2. demnächst einmal: ich habe die Absicht = I mean to, I intend to (§ 79 d A. 2, Seite 226).

to walk 1. zu Fuß gehen (nicht fahren, reiten), — 2. im Schritt gehen (nicht rennen to run). — *to ~ one's horses* = to lead, drive, or ride at a slow pace im Schritt gehen lassen.

9. to hear = 1. (gut) hören (können), verstehen, vernehmen; *entendre* — 2. abhören (Aufgegebenes abfragen).

to listen (to) = zuhören, hinhören auf (*écouter*).

Listen, my children, and you shall hear (Seite 148) — Listen when you are spoken to. — Though placed at a considerable distance from the stage (Bühne), I heard every word of what was being said. — The teacher hears a recitation, a class.

to attend lectures Vorlesungen hören.

10. to hold = 1. halten: broken cisterns can hold no water — 2. festhalten: to prevent from falling or escaping — 3. to ~ to (sich) festhalten an to keep in grasp, to cling to: they held to the life-buoy which supported them until a boat came to save them — Notwithstanding persecution they held to the belief of their fathers — 4. abhalten: to ~ a meeting, a council of war — 5. glauben, halten für 60, 36 — 6. to ~ good sich bewahrheiten, sich bewähren.

to keep = 1. dauernd halten, stets haben, im Besitz haben: to ~ a servant, a cow, a horse, a carriage and pair (Zweispänner), — to ~ lodgers (möblierte Zimmer vermieten), boarders (Kostgänger) — 2. behalten, aufbewahren 48, 14; 50, 17: a keepsake ein Andenken; keeper Aufseher, Verwalter — 3. fortdauernd beachten, innehalten (to continue in): to ~ one's word (promise), to ~ silence, a secret; to ~ time Takt halten — to ~ + *ger* = in einem fort: they kept talking, reading, moving — 4. führen: to ~ books Buch führen, to ~ a journal Tagebuch — 5. einbehalten, zurückbehalten: to ~ in prison; to ~ in nachsagen lassen.

11. to remember a thing or a person sich (ohne Mühe) erinnern an: noch recht gut wissen (kennen), noch lebhaft in der Erinnerung haben, eingedenk sein 30, 23 — *remembrance* 58, 15; 83, 41.

to recollect sich nach einigem Nachdenken noch auf etwas besinnen können, sich ins Gedächtnis zurückrufen: I have not the pleasure of recollecting his lordship's family name (beim besten Willen entsinne ich mich nicht) — *recollection* 58, 31.

to remind a person of a thing erinnern an 68, 44. — That reminds me of . . . da fällt mir ein . . .

12. to see sehen, mit dem Gesicht wahrnehmen, mit dem Verstande begreifen.

I see (Interjektion) siehe 54, 46; 27, 1.

to look = 1. aufschauen, aufmerken um zu sehen: look here, I am going to show you how this is to be done — 2. aussehen 24, 29; § 57 a — 3. to ~ at hinsehen auf, anblicken, anschauen 27, 11; 60, 11 — 4. to ~ out of the window zum Fenster hinaus-(heraus)sehen.

looking-glass = mirror Spiegel.

b) Substantive.

1. **bank** Ufer eines Flusses (See, Baches) —

shore Ufer des Meeres (eines ganz großen See, eines schon meerartig erweiterten Flusses): — to set on ~, to go on ~, to get on ~ (§ 20).

coast Küste, Gestade: — the fleet is on (= near) the American coast.

beach (das am meisten gebräuchliche Wort für) Strand; genauer = flacher (meist mit Sand und Kieselsteinchen bedeckt) bei der Flut unter Wasser liegender, bei der Ebbe freier Meeresstrand: the part of the shore of the sea lying between high- and low-water-mark. — "The strip of sand, gravel, or mud, which is alternately covered and laid bare by the rise and fall of the tidal undulation is called the beach." [Geikie, Physical Geogr. III, XVII, 154].

strand Strand: "A shore or beach of the sea or lake". — to ~ a ship = to drive, or run, a ship on the ~ (= to run a ship aground on the sea-shore). The ship stranded (= ran aground) at high-water.

2. **clock** Schlaguhr (Wand-, Stuh-, Turmuhr) — **watch** = Taschenuhr: — What o'clock is it by your watch? (§ 66; 38, 36).

3. **earl** englischer Graf, **count** nicht-englischer Graf. Das Femininum zu beiden ist **countess** (§ 15).

4. **example** = 1. Beispiel, das zur Nachahmung dient — 2. Beleg (Belegstelle, Mustere exemplar).

instance = Beispiel, das zum Beweis dient: for instance (oft e. g. geschrieben [= exempli gratia], aber meist for instance gesprochen) = 3. B. — as (for) an example: 1. als ein (gutes) Beispiel zur Nachahmung — 2. als ein Beispiel (Musterstück) für den hier vorliegenden Fall.

sample Warenprobe: — to send something by sample-post als Muster ohne Wert.

paradigm = 1. Konjugations-, Declinationsmuster — 2. (seltener:) Veranschaulichungsbeispiel, Mustersatz (model-sentence) u. dgl.

5. **flesh** Fleisch — 1. Fleisch am Körper (bei Mensch und Tier): ~ and blood — 2. Fleischnahrung im Gegensatz zur Pflanzenkost: animal food, in distinction from vegetable food; horse-flesh — 3. Fleischnahrung im Gegensatz zu Fischen: beasts and birds used as food, in distinction from fish. [Doch zuweilen sind auch Vögel ausgeschlossen: flesh, fish, fowl]. — 4. Fleisch einer Frucht: the soft pulpy substance of fruit — 5. (im biblischen Sinne:) Fleisch = the body, as distinguished from the soul, usw.

meat Fleisch schon fertig zum Kochen, als Speise: a breakfast of bread and fruit, without ~. A ~-tea Tee mit kaltem Aufschnitt. Grace before (after) ~ = Tischgebet (daneben auch: after meals Seite 175).

6. **foreigner** Fremder = Ausländer; **foreign** fremdländisch. — **stranger** ein in dem Orte unbekannter, nicht Bescheid wissender Fremder (gleichviel ob Ausländer oder Landesbewohner); **strange** seltsam, sonderbar: — I am a stranger myself ich weiß hier auch nicht Bescheid, bin selbst fremd.

7. **form** = 1. Substanz, Schulbank — 2. Schulklasse — **bench** Sitzbank — **bank** Geld-, Geschäftsbank; ~er Bankier; ~ing-house Bankhaus.

8. **gender** grammatisches Geschlecht (19, 33; §§ 30, 31) — **sex** natürliches Geschlecht: the male ~ = the strong ~; the female ~ = the (weak or the) fair ~. Both ~es and ages.

9. gentleman ein gebildeter, materiell unabhängiger, in seinem äußeren Auftreten, wie in Gesinnung und Verhalten vornehmer Herr.

Sir nur in der Anrede: a) ähnlich wie das französische "Monsieur" = „mein Herr“ — b) vor dem Taufnamen eines baronet oder knight (111, s): Sir Walter (Scott).

Master = 1. Herr, Brotherr, Gebieter (63, 19) — 2. Lehrer (= teacher 17, 18) — 3. als Titel = Magister: he is an M. A. = a Magister Artium, a Master of Arts vgl. 54, 31 — 4. [vor dem Tauf-, seltener vor dem Familiennamen] junger Herr im Hause des Vaters bis etwa zu 16 Jahren: Master Tim (Master Vaughan; Master Tim Vaughan).

Mr. — gesprochen *mister* — nur vor dem Familiennamen (dem jedoch auch der Taufname noch vorausgehen kann), nie vor einem Titel (Seite 119 f.): Mr. Smith, Mr. Leslie Smith.

Lord = 1. adeliger Titel 111, 3 — 2. Gott der Herr (Seite 175).

10. opportunity = (die sich gerade anbietende) Gelegenheit (die man benützen sollte) — **occasion** Veranlassung, Anlaß: There was no occasion (= no necessity) to speak English — I have no occasion (= no need) for your assistance — On that occasion bei dieser Gelegenheit; on a former occasion; *occasionally* gelegentlich. — I avail myself of the opportunity (§ 82 b). — When I was in London last summer, I stayed with German friends and seldom had an opportunity of speaking English.

11. shade Schatten = Raum, wo kein Licht ist — **shadow** Schattenbild, das die Form eines Körpers darstellt: to sit in the shade of a tree. How beautiful the shadow of this tree looks! To measure a pyramid by its shadow. — May your shadow never grow less! = burschiföser Zuzuf bei Trinfelagen. — The shades = the Nether World, the supposed abode of souls after leaving the body: Schattenreich. — No one ever thinks in English Schools of having a half-holiday when the thermometer is at 77 (or even at 80 or more) in the shade. — He lay down to rest in the shade.

12. society Gesellschaft = 1. Umgang mit Menschen: he is fond of society — 2. die gute, vornehme Gesellschaft: you must not say so in society, to mix in society (126, 4) — 3. a social union Verein, besonders zu künstlerischen, wissenschaftlichen, menschenfreundlichen Zwecken: a missionary society, the London Shakespeare Society, a temperance-society.

company Gesellschaft = 1. Zusammensein mit anderen, Begleitung: — I am most glad of your ~. In ~ = not alone, amidst other people — in ~ with zusammen mit — 2. Verkehr: to keep ~ with; to keep good ~: he is rather bad ~, and is hardly ever invited to dinner — 3. Handelsgesellschaft, Sozietät: — Fire Insurance Company — 4. (oft abgekürzt zu) Co: Geschäftsteilnehmer = the partner, or partners, in a firm whose names do not appear in the style or title: — Messrs. Griffith and Co. — 5. Theater-, Musikertruppe: a ~ of players, ~ of musicians (= a band of musicians).

party = die zu einer Vergnügung im Hause oder im Freien, zu einer Entdeckungsfahrt, Jagd, Reise u. dgl. eingeladene oder sich zusammenfindende (geschlossene) Gesellschaft (59, 20). —

Merke: to take a trip into the country, to make an excursion, to take an outing eine Landpartie machen.

13. sorrow Kummer, Trauer, Herzeleid: The Sorrows of Werther (S. 192) — The Sorrows of the World (Überschrift eines Artikels in der Times) = Trauerfundgebungen überall in der ganzen Welt gelegentlich des Ablebens des Königs Eduard VII.)

care = Sorge, Besorgnis, Besorgtsein — aufmerksam wachende Obhut, Sorgfalt — c/o § 105 Seite 254 — ~ful peinlich sorgsam, ~less — to take ~ of in acht nehmen, sorgsam behüten, sorgsam behandeln — to ~ for etwas achten, Gewicht legen auf — not to ~ for sich nichts machen aus, sich nicht kehren an: I don't care es ist mir ganz einerlei, ich mache mir gar nichts daraus — take ~ nimm dich in Acht! Achtung! — with ~ Vorsicht!

14. steeple = Kirchturm mit Spize: nach oben zu sich verjüngender Kirchturm, gewöhnlich bestehend aus dem tower, dem massigen Unterbau, mit daraufgesetztem spire: a weathercock on a steeple. — **spire** = 1. in der Sprache des Bauhandwerks: das zu hochtragender Spize emporlaufende Kirchturmsdach — 2. gewöhnlich: a) schlanke, hohe Kirchturmspize; b) besonders schlanker, spitzer Kirchturm; the spire of Strasburg Cathedral. — **tower** ist auch das allgemeine Wort für 'Turm' besonders für einen stumpfen Turm.

steeple-chase Pferdewettrennen mit Hindernissen nach einem fernen, weithin sichtbaren Kirchtum als Richtungs- oder Zielpunkt.

15. travel (eine sich weithin ausdehnende) Reise; to ~ (große) Reisen machen — to ~ in a country Reisen in einem Lande machen, umherreisen, to go to a country, to a place reisen nach. — to travel on foot, by post, by mail-coach, by motor-car, by land, by water, by sea, in an open carriage. —

~ling bag Reisetasche; ~ling expenses Reisekosten.

journey Tagesmarsch, Landreise, größere Reise; to go on a ~, to set out for a ~ verreisen; — to be away (absent) from home, verreist sein; to be travelling auf Reisen sein.

voyage Seereise; lange mehrtägige Reise zu Wasser.

c) Adjektive:

1. different anders = verschiedengeartet, unähnlich: a ~ person (somebody else) jemand anders.

other ander = nicht der nämliche (not the same), aber doch nicht notwendigerweise verschiedenartig. — **another** meist = „noch ein“ (selten: „ein anderer“ § 47 a).

Let me have a different horse geben Sie mir doch einen andern Gaul; auf diesem kann ich nicht reiten (another horse hieße: „noch einen“). — I thought the horse had a different tail (= „einen anderen Schwanz“; another tail hieße: „noch einen“). — We expected a very different answer („ganz andere“). — Something different oder a different thing etwas anderes; dafür auch quite another affair (Something else heißt auch: „noch etwas“). — Nobody else kein anderer — Nothing but nichts anderes als — None other than niemand anders als (§ 41 c). — Other people andere, nicht mehr die nämlichen Leute; aber different people = Leute ganz anderer Art, mit ganz anderen Anschauungen.

Merke: the other day (night) = „neulich“. — „Am anderen Tage“ = the next (oder on the following) day.

several verschiedene = 1. etliche, mehrere 56, 9 — 2. die einzelnen aus der gerade genannten bestimmten Anzahl: the ~ members of a community. — **Exeunt** ~ly die Schauspieler treten jeder einzeln für sich (nach verschiedenen Seiten hin) ab.

various mannigfach, mancherlei: ~ kinds of (§ 47 c).

2. easy = leicht zu tun, leicht zu erreichen, Gegenteil: *difficult* — *light* leicht wiegend, Gegenteil: *heavy*.

hard mühsam und voller Schwierigkeiten: 30, 19; 2, 34 — to work ~ 31, 8.

3. great groß an Bedeutung, bedeutend — **large** groß an Ausdehnung, Raum, Menge (*small* klein) — **tall** hochragend, schlank und gerade, lang emporgewachsen (*short* klein; § 53; § 50 A. 1) — **big** groß (und dick): in der Umgangssprache sehr gebräuchlich (*little* klein) — **grand** großartig, prächtig (60, 30) — **huge** ungeheuer groß 58, 5 (*tiny*, familiär: *wee* = winzig klein).

4. handsome schön, wohlgestaltet: a ~ man, a ~ woman eine stattliche, ansehnliche Erscheinung; a ~ horse.

pretty hübsch, niedlich: a ~ girl, a ~ child, a ~ picture, a ~ book.

fine fein und vornehm: a ~ gentleman (lady, woman); ~ language; — vortrefflich: a ~ picture (garden, landscape, horse, poem, day) — a ~ fellow ein famoser, trefflicher Kerl.

fair = 1. hellfarbig, blond: a ~ skin heller Teint, ~ hair 62, 2 — 2. klar und schön: — a ~ sky, a ~ day, ~ weather, a ~ handwriting — 3. frei und offen, rechtschaffen, ehrlich: a ~ man, ~ dealing, ~ play, a ~ statement — 5. a ~ specimen ein gutes Durchschnittsexemplar.

nice angenehm, nett: a ~ morning — ~ people — a ~ girl — a ~ fellow ein lieber Junge.

beautiful schön in jeder Beziehung: 34, 35; § 55 a.

5. healthy gesund = 1. nicht krank 171, 21 — 2. die Gesundheit fördernd: a ~ child, a ~ plant, a ~ exercise, a ~ climate.

wholesome gesund = 1. (von der Nahrung:) der Gesundheit zuträglich: a ~ food; a ~ variety of food. — 2. übertragen: a ~ thirst, a ~ appetite; a ~ advice, ~ truths.

sound gut und wohlbehalten, tüchtig, verständig: a ~ mind in a ~ body *mens sana in corpore sano* — in a ~ condition (Zustand) — ~ knowledge (solide) — a ~ sleep (tiefer), ~ asleep tief schlafend.

6. human menschlich: the ~ body, ~ life, the ~ race. To err is ~, to forgive divine 74, 43; *humanity* = 1. mankind Menschheit — 2. Menschlichkeit, Barmherzigkeit — 3. Gesittung und feine Bildung.

humane menschenfreundlich, human — *humanitarian* menschenfreundlich 76, 16.

7. ill krank, nur prädicativ (§ 57 c): he is seriously ill — *illness* Krankheit — **sick** 1. übel, unwohl: sea ~, 2. ~ of überdrüssig. — the sick-room Krankenzimmer; — ~ ness Siechtum.

§ 129. (Antonyms, or:) **Opposites** (opposite terms = words of opposite meaning: the opposite (or antonym) of *friend* is *foe* or *enemy*; *friend* is opposite (opposed) to *enemy*).

dry 49, 16: *wet* 38, 21 — *ugly* 24, 30: *handsome* 38, 33; *beautiful* 34, 35 — *clean* 20, 29: *dirty* 20, 30 — *love* 64, 22: *hate* 64, 32 — *strong* 57, 10: *weak* 57, 5.

§ 130. Correlatives (or: Correlative terms) = Korrelate: Wörter, deren Bedeutungen zueinander in Beziehung stehen, ein sich gegenseitiges Verhältnis bezeichnen — Words having a reciprocal relation such that each necessarily implies (or is complementary to) the other.

husband 27, 16 : *wife* 43, 24 — *foreign* 38, 14 : *native* 58, 35 — *question* : *answer* — *to sell* 62, 1 : *to buy* 55, 19 — *master* 64, 32 (*mistress* 54, 25) : *servant* 21, 12.

Formengleichheit und Formenscheidung. Differentiation.

§ 131. Außerlich gleiche Form haben im Englischen vielfach Wörter von ganz verschiedener syntaktischer Verwendung (Funktion).

Nur einige Beispiele:

after, *since*, *before*, sind sowohl Präposition wie Konjunktion und Adverb — *up*, *behind*, *without* sind Präpos. und Adv. — *for* ist Präpos. und Konj. — *very* ist Adj. und Adv.; desgl. Wörter wie *hard* (§ 94 a).

a ist 1. unbestimmter Artikel (also ursprünglich Zahlwort § 9 A.) — 2. Abföhrung für *on* oder *in* (§ 22c A., § 88b A. 2).

an ist 1. unbest. Artikel — 2. es steht (heute veraltet) für *and* (subordinierend gebraucht) — neben dem volleren 'and if' oder 'an if' — in der Bedeutung 'if', 'wenn': —

An we've any luck [1775 Sheridan, *Rivals* III. IV]. — *But an it please thee not* [1859 Tennyson, *Gareth & Lynette* 251]; —

die Verwendung vieler Substantive als Adj., wobei die Grenze zwischen adjektivischem Gebrauch des Substantivs und Wort-Komposition oft schwer zu ziehen ist (53, 21; § 56b): — *a silk hat*; *a lead pencil* Bleistift, *a Newfoundland* (10, 2) *dog*, *Cheshire cheese* Chester Käse.

Hierher gehört besonders die Verwendung

a) vieler Verben als Substantive:

to have a dip (54, 12; § 22c) sich einmal untertauchen, d. h. schnell einmal ein Bad im Freien (im Meere, im Flusse . .) nehmen — *to have a cut from the joint* eine Scheibe Braten aus der Keule — . .

kiss Kuß; *to ~* — *drink* Getränk, Schluck; *to ~* — *fight* Kampf; *to ~* — *aid* Hilfe; *to ~* — *design* Entwurf, Vorhaben, Absicht; *to ~* entwerfen, beabsichtigen im Schilde führen — u. a. m.

b) vieler Substantive als Verben:

man; *to ~* bemannen — *people*; *to ~* bevölkern — *promise*; *to ~* versprechen — *breakfast* (12, 23); *to ~* frühstücken — *fire*; *to ~* feuern — *worship* Anbetung, Verehrung; *to ~* — *race* Wettrennen; *to ~* — *mark* Merkzeichen; *to ~* markieren, beachten — *profit* Nutzen; *to ~* Nutzen bringen, Nutzen ziehen — u. a. m.

c) einiger Adjektive als Verben:

English; *to english* (= to anglicize) — *better*; *to ~* bessern — *faint* schwach; *to ~* schwach werden, in Ohnmacht fallen — *free*; *to ~* befreien — *open* offen; *to ~* öffnen — *wrong* unrecht; *to ~* Unrecht tun — u. a. m.

d) einiger Pronomina als Verben:

to thou and thee du sagen, duzen.

e) einiger Interjektionen als Verben:

to hullo hullo rufen — *to hem hm* sagen —

usw.

§ 132. Besonders beachtenswert ist die Verwendung sehr vieler Verben in transitiver wie in intransitiver oder reflexiver (§ 82 b) Bedeutung:

to begin *trans.* 15, 19 (*intrans.* 18, 19; 37, 25; 49, 10) — to change ändern 46, 21 (umsteigen 24, 22) — to drive fahren 83, 6 (35, 2) — to do *trans.* tun, fertig machen 20, 14; 38, 16 — gar *cochen*: the meat (the roast, a dish of potatoes) is done *ist gar* (well done gut gar, gut durchgebraten; underdone nicht völlig gar insufficiently cooked; overdone zu gar: cooked too much) — *intrans.* = 1. arbeiten, verfahren, sich verhalten 30, 27; 37, 30; 37, 34; 13, 29 — 2. es auch tun, genügen: this one will do 27, 2 — to drop fallen lassen 33, 27 (15, 2) — to follow 64, 9 (74, 13; 79, 13) — to fire 76, 12 (77, 23) — to get 40, 33 (41, 4) — to increase 75, 40; 75, 35 (66, 35; 78, 11; 78, 39) — to live 78, 21 (65, 14) — to pass 20, 25 (43, 11) — to play 38, 22 (3, 9) — to read 66, 11 (66, 12) — to return zurückstellen, wiedergeben 79, 5; 68, 29; 81, 23 (zurückkehren 28, 21) — to ring the bell 14, 8 (the bell rings 18, 15; 33, 24) — to stop 17, 19 (38, 22; 43, 16) — to turn kehren, wenden 46, 18; 73, 35 (25, 10; 67, 39) — to try 82, 17; 37, 28; 61, 25 (38, 35; 60, 15) — to leave 18, 6; 28, 14 (38, 16; 43, 1; 30, 37) — to pay 65, 2 (24, 34) — u. a. m.

to approach 72, 33 (80, 6) — to assemble 68, 31 (63, 39) — to feel 78, 20 (35, 34) — to prove beweisen 72, 26; 79, 15 (sich erweisen als 61, 30) — to settle 64, 37 (61, 31; 77, 25) — to withdraw 61, 17 (61, 15) — to join (mit Affus.) vereinigen; sich vereinigen mit 60, 8; 74, 8 [to join in sich beteiligen an (§ 126, Satz 13, Seite 268) — to join with sich verbinden mit] — u. a. m.

§ 133. Nur äußerlich für das Auge gleichförmig, in Wirklichkeit verschieden sind Wörter, die nur in der Schreibung, nicht in der Aussprache gleich sind.

a) Wörter verschiedener Betonung: das **Zeitwort** hat den Ton nach der VorSilbe:

accent Akzent; to ~ betonen — attribute Attribut; to ~ beilegen — compound zusammengesetzt; to ~ zusammensetzen, ausgleichen — concert Konzert; to ~ verabreden — conduct Führung; to ~ führen — consort Gemahl, Gemahlin; to ~ verbinden, sich gesellen — desert öde, Wüste; to ~ verlassen [aber desert Verdienst und dessert Nachtisch haben beide den Akzent auf der zweiten Silbe] — essay Versuch, Abhandlung; to ~ versuchen — export Ausfuhr; to ~ exportieren — frequent häufig; to ~ häufig besuchen — import Einfuhr; to ~ einführen — object Gegenstand; to ~ einwerfen — present gegenwärtig, Geschenk; to ~ darreichen, darbieten — produce Ertrag; to ~ hervorbringen — progress Fortschritt; to ~ fortschreiten — project Plan; to ~ entwerfen — record Register, Aufzeichnung; to ~ aufzeichnen — retail Detailverkauf, Kleinhandel; to ~ detaillieren — subject untergeben, Untertan; to ~ unterwerfen — surname Beiname, Familienname; to ~ zubenamen — transfer Übertragung; to ~ übertragen — u. a. m.

b) verschiedene Betonung haben ferner:

August August; august erhaben, erlaucht — human den Menschen betreffend; humane menschenfreundlich — urban städtisch (suburban vorstädtisch); urbane höflich, artig, fein — minute 1. Minute, 2. kurzer Bemerk; minute klein, winzig u. a. m.

c) das Zeitwort hat stimmhaftes s:

use Gebrauch; to ~ [aber mit stimmlosem s: I used to ich pflegte] — close verschlossen, eng, knapp; to ~ schließen — excuse; to ~ — house; to ~ unter Dach und Fach bringen, aufnehmen — u. a. m.

Unm. Die Verschiedenheit der Aussprache zeigt sich auch in der Schrift bei:
 advice Rat; to advise — device 1. Erfindung, Kunstgriff, 2. Devise, Sinn-
 spruch; to devise erfinden — prophecy Prophezeiung; to prophesy — grief
 Schmerz, Kummer; to grieve — half halb, Hälfte (3, 12); to halve halbieren —
 bath Bad (§ 26 A. 3b); to bathe — breath Atem; to breathe — wreath Kranz;
 to wreath winden, flechten, befränzen — cloth Tuch (cloths Tüche, clothes Kleider
 § 27); to clothe kleiden — life Leben *ai*; to live (mit *i*; ebenso mit *ī*: the live-
 long day den lieben langen Tag; aber mit *ai*: alive am Leben, live-stock das
 lebende Inventar, lively *adj.* lebhaft) — u. a. m.

Große Anfangsbuchstaben. Capital Letters.

§ 134. A capital letter should begin

1. the first word of every sentence — of every line of poetry —
 of every direct quotation;

2. a proper noun and words derived from proper nouns.

The days of the week, the names of the months, — and words
 denoting personifications of inanimate objects or abstract ideas
 — should be similarly treated.

Note. Accordingly, contrary to the French use, in English adjectives
 expressing nationality begin (are written) with a capital letter:

England: *English* — France: *French* — Germany: *German* — America:
American — Rome: *Roman* — Latium: *Latin* — Greece: *Greek*, etc.

3. titles, the names of the religious bodies or political parties, or
 any special body of men, words naming events or particular things of
 special importance, titles of books or newspapers: —

the Declaration of Independence (1776) — Home Rule — Alfred the
 Great — Edward the Seventh — the New York Elevated Railway (but with
 a small letter: an elevated railway) — the East River (but: the river Thames). —
 the King = King George or any king just in question (but: the king of a
 country).

4. God and all words and attributives expressing deity in the
 monotheistic religions of the Christians, Jews, and Mahometans:
 — God Almighty — the Lord's Prayer — the Everlasting — the Supreme
 Being; — but a small letter must be put in expressions such as: — the gods of
 the heathens (of idolaters) — the twelve gods (goddesses) of the Greeks — to
 be treated like a god (68, 22), — whose god is their belly [*Phillipians* III, 19], etc.

5. The personal pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O* (less frequently
 spelt *oh*).

Silbenabbrechung. Syllabication, or: Syllabic Division of Words in Writing or Print.

§ 135. Monosyllabic words, including those, of course, which
 end in a silent e cannot be divided.

Note 1. If, in the plural, the latter words become dissyllabic, the division
 of their plurals is allowed (but usually avoided): — game: *games* — life:
lives — race: *races* or *ra-ces*, — size: *sizes* or *si-zes*, house: *houses* or *hou-ses*.

Note 2. Words like *able*, *acre*, *people* . . are in syllabication, though the final *e* is silent, regarded as dissyllabic, on account of the semi-vocalic nature of *l* (5, 27) and *r* (6, 2; 6, 8); their division is therefore allowed (but usually avoided): *a-ble* or *able*, *peo-ple* or *people*, *gen-tle* or *gentle*, *thea-tre* or *theatre*.

§ 136. Diphthongs and two letters expressing one sound cannot be separated, as *hour*, *plea-sant*, *reel* (but *re-al*), *pi-geon*, *na-tion*, *na-tion-al*, *o-cean*, *gra-cious*, *con-di-tion*, *ques-tion*, *sol-dier*, but *qui-et*, *po-et*, *pi-ano*, *pow-er*, *roy-age*.

§ 137. Compound words must be divided according to their component parts; words with prefixes, suffixes, or inflections according to their different elements: *hav-ing*, *blaz-ing*, *writ-ing*, *writ-er* — *finish-ing*, *finish-ed*, *finish-es* — *nation-al*, *consider-ation* — *with-out* — *Eng-land* — *bush-es* — *great-est*.

Note 1. This rule holds good only as far as there is no danger of mispronouncing (of misrepresenting the pronunciation of) the word; therefore in words as *chan-ging*, *chan-ged* — *oran-gery*, *wa-ger* — *rejoi-cing*, *rejoi-ced* — *voi-ces*, *se-cret*, *g* and *c* go with (join the) following termination.

Note 2. *fall-ing* — but: *drop-ping*, *travel-ing*, *travel-ler*, *red-der*, *red-dest*. When the doubling of the consonant does not belong to the original word, but is the consequence of inflection (or derivation), the second consonant goes with the following termination.

§ 138. Other words are divided according to their pronunciation. — Where there is only one consonant, it belongs to the last syllable. — If there are two or more, the first goes with the preceding vowel and the rest join the next syllable: *pas-sage*, *hun-dred*, *sis-ter*.

Limitations: 1. *x* always joins the preceding vowel: — *Sax-ony*, *fox-es*, *ex-ample*, *ex-amine*.

2. *ck* always joins the preceding vowel (unless followed by *le* or *re*): — *sick-en*, *pock-et*, but *sic-kle* (or *sickle*).

3. two consonants representing one sound cannot be separated: — *mo-ther*, *ne-phew*, *arch-bi-shop*, *laugh-ter*, *god-dess-es*, *diph-thong*.

4. no two consonants are capable of beginning a syllable unless there are words in English beginning with the same combination of consonants: — *part-ner*, *contemp-tible*, *emp-ty*, *sculp-ture*, *con-junc-tion*.

Satzzeichen (Interpunction). Punctuation.

Preliminary Remark. There are four principal stops in English; their names are: — the comma, semicolon, colon, and full stop [or: period].

For the other marks of punctuation, and signs used in writing, see Vocabulary page 26.

For the longer stops German and English uses nearly agree, but in the employment of the comma they differ.

§ 139. Contrary to the German use, a comma is **not** placed (not put) in English

1. vor einschränkenden (bestimmenden) Relativsätzen — before a restrictive (qualifying) relative clause (§ 46 b, § 44 e) — nor afterwards when the sentence is short: § 60, 24—25; 61, 31—36; 64, 33; 71, 31; 77, 16.

2. vor indirekten Frageſätzen und vor allen Subjekt-, Objekt- und Prädikatsnominativ-Sätzen — before indirect questions and before subjective, objective, and predicative clauses (§ 122 a), — especially before the conjunction *that* introducing such clauses (whereas *'that'* final, and *'so that'*, consecutive, usually have a comma before them): **¶** 61, 48—62, 1; 55, 25; 60, 40—61, 1; 65, 11; 61, 23; 62, 4; 37, 34; 72, 31; 71, 16; 71, 32; 78, 34.

3. before infinitives and gerunds: **¶** 63, 30—38; 59, 25; 59, 31; 61, 4; 64, 36; 73, 42; 77, 43.

4. vor kurzen Adverbialsätzen, die ſich eng an den Hauptsatz anſchließen — before adverbial clauses closely connected with the principal clause, especially when they are short: **¶** 50, 4; 59, 8; 64, 20; 62, 34; 43, 33; 69, 25—26; 74, 40.

5. vor Vergleichungsſätzen mit *as* oder *than* — before comparative clauses introduced by *than* or *as*: **¶** 71, 6; 77, 18.

§ 140. Contrary to the German use, a comma is put in English

1. vor *and* und *or* bei Zuſammenſtellung von — drei oder mehr Satzgliedern — oder zwei Sätzen mit gleichem oder verſchiedenem Subjekt — before the conjunctions *and* and *or* when they connect — three, or more, words (or phrases), or — two sentences (with the same or a different subject): **¶** 31, 12; 67, 10; 62, 2; 55, 6; 38, 4; 55, 19; 55, 24; 55, 33; 65, 28; 59, 28; 73, 37; 70, 29; 63, 5; 39, 4.

Note: Accordingly a comma is placed before *etc.* and *and so on*.

2. (oft) hinter der adverbialen Beſtimmung, wenn ſie dem Subjekt voranſteht — (often) before the subject when it is preceded by an adverbial phrase: **¶** 35, 14; 58, 9; 59, 20; 64, 2; 68, 1; 74, 4; 77, 17; 82, 24.

3. (oft) vor und nach dem Attribut oder der adverbialen Beſtimmung — (often) in the course of a sentence, before and after an adverbial or attributive adjunct or an adverbial phrase: **¶** 57, 8; 63, 3; 65, 4; 67, 2; 81, 4; 80, 9; 77, 8; 70, 3; 62, 18; 75, 4; 67, 43; 70, 35; 75, 23; 64, 14; 57, 37; 70, 30; 66, 30; 72, 42; 78, 36; 73, 8; 73, 39; 79, 19.

4. (oft) vor und nach *too*, *however*, *indeed*, *therefore* und anderen beordnenden Bindewörtern, wenn ſie in den Satz eingeshoben ſind — before and after *too*, *however*, *indeed*, *therefore*, and other coordinative conjunctions when they do not begin the sentence: **¶** 58, 5; 59, 10; 70, 33; 67, 20; 72, 1; 80, 38.

5. hinter einer Präpoſition, deren Beziehungswort von mehr als einem Prädikat ungleicher Konſtruktion abhängig iſt — after each predicate when (in a contracted sentence) an object is governed by more than one predicate: **¶** 73, 18. *The Tales of a Grandfather* were written for, and inscribed to, Hugh Littlejohn, Scott's grandson.

6. nach der Anrede in Briefen (wo im Deutſchen gewöhnlich ein Ausrufungszeichen ſteht) — after the salutation in letters (see Supplement 51, pages 117 and 118).

7. (oft) vor der direkten Rede (wo im Deutſchen ein Doppelpunkt ſteht) — (often) after *'he says'*, *'he said'*, etc., when the direct speech is quoted: **¶** 35, 35; 62, 9.

Ü b u n g s s t ü c k e ¹⁾.

Exercise on Composition I. (a, an. Gr. § 8. 9. § 25. § 26 u. U. 1. u. 2. und Adj. Possessivpr. § 40; — § 48, § 69 c. f. § 74, § 77 u. U. 1 u. 3, § 106, § 113 a; there is 36, 29; 37, 9; — much, many 41, 27; — she her, they their; he his, it its [„sein“ = its 55, 20]; er = it 19, 34; ihn = it 19, 35; sie = it 19, 36; — he had come 55, 20; it has dropped 15, 1). Viktoria war die Mutter von König Eduard VII. Ihre drei Hauptresidenzen waren Schloß Windsor, Osborne und Balmoral. Schloß Windsor, eines der schönsten Schlösser in England, liegt an den Ufern der Themse. Wilhelm der Eroberer baute den ersten Teil dieses königlichen Schlosses. Dasselbst haben die alten Könige Englands viele königliche Gäste bewillkommnet und (haben) viele glänzende Feste abgehalten. Es ist Zeuge gewesen von vielen wichtigen Ereignissen in [der] englischen Geschichte. Am 7. Juli 1891 bewirtete [die] Königin Viktoria in diesem Schlosse den Sohn ihrer ältesten Tochter, den Kaiser Wilhelm II. von Deutschland, festlich. Er war nach England gekommen, [um] der Königin einen Besuch abzustatten. Das im Saale St. Georgs abgehaltene Prunkmahl war sehr großartig (55, 31) und glänzend. Da gab es goldene Teller und goldene Messer und Böffel für jeden von den 150 Gästen der Königin. Lange Reihen goldener Leuchter erleuchteten den Saal, und die Tischtücher waren aus (von) dem schönsten Damast. An einem Ende des Saales (da) waren die reichen Schätze Indiens, die der Königin gehörten (Part. Präf.). Der goldene Tigerkopf ist sehr schwer. Seine Augen, Zähne und Fangzähne sind von Kristall. Der mit Juwelen besetzte Pfauhahn und der mit Juwelen besetzte Schirm sind nicht weniger auffallend. Indien gehört jetzt England (22, 14); der König von England ist auch Kaiser von Indien. Der deutsche Kaiser blieb vier Tage in Windsor. Dann ging er nach London, wo der Lord Mayor ihn in der Altstadt festlich bewirtete.

¹⁾ Die folgenden Übungsstücke enthalten mehr Stoff, als mit einer Schülergeneration durchgearbeitet werden kann. Die in diesen Übungsstücken gebotenen Übersetzungsübungen setzen jedesmal die vorangegangene gründliche Durcharbeitung der betreffenden englischen Komposition voraus. Diese sollte nicht nur **retrovertiert** werden, sondern auch durch **Sprechübungen** in englischer Sprache eingeübt sein.

Diese Sprechübungen sind doppelter Art: einmal durch Fragen (die sich mehr oder minder eng an den Text anschließen) nach dem Inhalt, — dann aber auch durch freiere Fragen. The chief object of these conversational exercises is to enable the pupil to become a master of his vocabulary **independently** of the subject-matter of the preceding piece or pieces. Therefore, while starting from some point or other of the preceding reading-matter, the teacher should gradually lead the pupil to speak on something entirely unconnected with it, that is already known to him or that will at once awaken his interest. He should, also, each time, lead the pupil now from the style of book-language to the freer and easier way of **conversational speech**, by so directing the conversation, that it always finally turns on some **topic of every-day occurrence**, or one adapted to the circumstances of the hour and class.

Care should be taken that, as a rule, in these Conversational Exercises **no other words but** those already **known** to the pupil should be made use of. The use of his mother tongue in the Conversational Exercises should be strictly excluded

Hatte Schloß Windsor je einen Kaiser gesehen? Hatte ein englischer König je einen größeren Gast bewillkommenet? Weißt du, wieviel Geld die Königin für die Fertigstellung von Schloß Windsor bezahlte? Bist du je in England gewesen? Wenn du dort[hin] gehst, vergiß nicht, Schloß Windsor einen Besuch abzustatten. In Windsor sind die Ufer der Themse sehr schön. Als Wilhelm der Eroberer ein Stück Land von den Mönchen von Westminster gekauft hatte, begann er den ersten Teil von Schloß Windsor zu bauen. [Die] Königin Viktoria beendete die letzte der großen Änderungen, [die] in Schloß Windsor gemacht [sind]. Hast du je ein königliches Schloß gesehen? Als ich in England war, sah ich zwei königliche Schlösser. Die englischen Könige entfalten viel Pracht, wenn sie ihre Gäste bewirten. Kein englischer König hatte je solche Vorräte von reichen Schätzen entfaltet. Es liegt nicht in meiner Macht, meinen Gästen goldene Teller zu geben. Nimmst du je deine Suppe mit einem goldenen Löffel?

Composition II. (Gr. § 58, 59 (Einmaleins), 60 bis 66. Adj. § 48. it
 16 its. Possessiva § 40. to become „werden“; large, great — more than — from . .
 to. — Colonel Adams = der Oberst A. — the city of New Y.; the island of; half a
 mile.) New York liegt auf einer Insel zwischen dem Ostflusse und dem Hudson.
 Der letztere Fluß hat sehr schöne Ufer (55, 5). Die Amerikaner nennen ihn den
 20 amerikanischen Rhein. Henry Hudson sah ihn am 11. September 1609.
 New Jersey liegt auf der rechten Seite des Hudson. Auf der linken Seite des
 Ostflusses liegt Brooklyn. Es hat mehr als 800 000 Einwohner und viele
 hundert Kirchen. Es ist $7\frac{3}{4}$ Meilen lang, zwischen (von) $3\frac{1}{2}$ bis $7\frac{1}{3}$ Meilen
 24 breit, und sein Flächeninhalt ist 20,84 Quadratmeilen. Die Stadt New York
 ist 16 Meilen lang und $4\frac{1}{2}$ Meilen breit (wide 57, 20). Sie ist eine alte
 Niederlassung der Holländer. Die Holländer übergaben sie den Yankees im
 Jahre 1664. Die Yankees gaben dieser holländischen Besitzung einen neuen
 28 Namen. Nach dem Herzog von York und Albany, des Königs Bruder, nannten
 sie sie New York. Der Handelsverkehr zwischen New York und Brooklyn ist
 sehr groß. Der Ostfluß ist hier mehr als eine halbe Meile breit. Es gibt viele
 Dampf-Fährboote, welche diese beiden (zwei) Plätze verbinden (Part. Präf.).
 32 Dampf-Fährboote tragen große Eisenbahnzüge den Fluß hinunter herum nach
 New-Jersey. — Die Ostflußbrücke ist eine der (55, 17) größten Hängebrücken in
 der Welt. Oberst Möbling, ein Ingenieur preussischer Herkunft, machte die Zeich-
 nungen dazu (für sie). Er starb im Jahre 1869, ehe er ihren Bau begonnen
 36 hatte. Sechs Monate nach seinem Tode begann sein Sohn Washington Möbling
 die Brücke zu bauen. Durch ein Fieber wurde er im Jahre 1872 so schwach, daß
 er die Arbeit verlassen und nach Europa gehen mußte (zu gehen hatte). Diese
 Seereise machte ihn wieder stark. Er begann seine schwierige Aufgabe wieder
 40 und beendete sie im Mai 1883. Der Bau der Brücke hatte mehr als 15 Millionen
 Dollar gekostet. Brooklyn bezahlte $\frac{2}{3}$ und die Stadt New York $\frac{1}{3}$ dieser
 Summe. — Die Stadt macht einen großen Eindruck auf den europäischen Be-
 sucher. Bei Nacht erhöhen (55, 21) die vielen elektrischen Lampen (Lichter), die
 44 klar und hell über dem Wasser scheinen (Part. Präf.), diesen wunderbaren
 Eindruck. — Die Brücke ist 5989 Fuß lang und 85 Fuß breit (weit). Bei der

Flut (vgl. 24, 29 Ebbe) ist sie 135 Fuß hoch. Sie hat zwei Eisenbahngeleise, zwei Fahrwege für Wagen und einen Steig für Fußgänger. Fußgänger bezahlen einen Cent, [um] die Brücke zu überschreiten. Mit der Eisenbahn (by train, by railway-train, by rail (36, 36) kostet es (24, 18) 3 Cents. Nahezu 4 100 000 Personen passieren (überschreiten) die Brücke täglich. Zwei große Pfeiler (Türme) tragen (unterstützen) den ganzen Bau. Sie sind 272 Fuß hoch über der Wasserlinie und 159 Fuß hoch über dem Erdboden. Der New Yorker Pfeiler enthält 46 945 Kubikyards (of) Mauerwerk. Die mittlere Spannweite 8 zwischen den zwei Pfeilern ist 1595 Fuß lang. —

Composition III. (Passiv 36, 15—17; 37, 1—7 [Gr. § 81 a b.]; by 36, 35 [Gr. § 107, 6]; to become [§ 81 b. A. 2]; much, many, a great many, a few 41, 29; very, much. I want to 40, 28. Wortstellung in: The Queen justly bears the title of 12 Empress 56, 5 [Gr. § 116 b.] und in: he was born in the Province of Brandenburg in 1813 = i. J. 1813 in der Pr. Br. [58, 19; Gr. § 116 f.]; as da, weil).

Ludwig Leichhardt wurde i. J. 1813 in der Provinz Brandenburg geboren. Auf der Universität studierte er Naturwissenschaft[en] und Medizin. Mit einem 16 englischen Freunde ging er nach England und nachher nach Australien. Hier wurde er ein großer Forschungsreisender. Im Jahre 1844 brach er mit einer Expedition von der Hauptstadt von Neu Süd-Wales auf. Er wollte den ganzen Distrikt zwischen Sydney und Port Essington erforschen. Sechs Europäer, zwei 20 Eingeborene und ein amerikanischer Neger wurden von Leichhardt auf diesem Zuge [mit]genommen. Er nahm auch 15 Pferde, 16 Ochsen und sehr viele Vorräte [mit]. Im Juni 1845 wurde die ganze Gesellschaft von den Eingeborenen angegriffen. Es war während der Nacht, als sie sich nach ihren 24 Zelten zurückgezogen hatten. Ihre fünf Zelte waren nicht weit von dem Lagerfeuer aufgeschlagen worden. Leichhardt war nicht in seinem Zelte. Er lag an (bei) dem Lagerfeuer, als er von dem lauten Lärm, der von den Eingeborenen gemacht wurde (Partiz.), und von einem Hilferuf aufgeweckt wurde. Ein Hagel 28 von Speeren war gegen die Zelte geworfen worden, und zwei von den Europäern waren in ihren Zelten sehr schwer verwundet worden. Als Gilbert, ein Engländer, aus seinem Zelte kam, wurde ihm die (= seine) Brust durch einen von einem Eingeborenen geworfenen Speer durchbohrt. Er starb bald darauf. Nach- 32 dem einige wenige Schüsse von Leichhardts [Reise-] Gesellschaft abgefeuert worden waren, waren die Wilden sehr erschreckt und flohen. Dann wurden die Wunden der zwei verwundeten Engländer von dem Leiter der Expedition verbunden, und Gilberts Leichnam wurde beerdigt. Über der Stelle (Platz), wo 36 sein Grab gegraben worden war, wurde ein großes Feuer angezündet, damit es nicht gefunden und damit der Leichnam nicht von den Eingeborenen gegessen werden konnte. Darauf zogen Leichhardt und seine Gesellschaft so schnell als 40 möglich weiter, und endlich wurde Port Essington erreicht. Diese Reise war sehr ergiebig, da (58, 18) durch dieselbe Queensland der Besiedelung erschlossen wurde. — Nach diesem ersten Zuge wurden von Leichhardt noch (46, 7; 24, 26) 41 zwei Versuche gemacht, das australische Festland zu erforschen. Wir wissen nicht, ob auf dem letzten der kühne Forscher von den Eingeborenen getötet wurde oder in einer Überschwemmung ertrank. Ein Denkmal ist ihm zur Er-

innerung (27, 16; 58, 17) in Sydney errichtet worden, und er wird von seinen australischen Landsleuten noch immer (58, 15) in liebevoller Erinnerung gehalten.

Composition IV.

- 4 A. 22, 24 — 23, 18; 32, 36 — 33, 8; 33, 33 — 33, 37; — a great many, a great deal of —; if, when; — Subjekt in Fragesätzen unmittelbar hinter dem ersten Hilfsverb. § 114 a. § 77 nebst A. 1. 2. 3. 4. (Nr. 1 und 2) — Relativ- (Gr. § 46 a, b, c), Interrogativ- (§ 45 a, b, c) und Determinativpronomen (§ 44 e).
- 8 In einigen (60, 28; 20, 34) Teilen der britischen Inseln begegnen (60, 20) wir Kreisen sehr alter großer Steine. Es gibt einige von diesen rohen denkmalartigen Steinen auf (55, 5) der Insel Anglesey. Wir finden sie auch auf einer der Orkney-Inseln, in Wiltshire und unweit des Dorfes Rollright in Oxford-
- 12 shire. Von wem wurden sie dort aufgestellt (27, 15)? Wer machte sie? Wann wurden sie errichtet (27, 17; 59, 33) und unter wessen Leitung (57, 3)? Wir wissen nicht, wie diese Steine dort [hin]kamen, aber einige Geschichtsschreiber meinen (26, 35), daß es (= sie) die Trümmer eines (irgendeines 60, 27) keltischen
- 16 Tempels sind, und daß zur Zeit (61, 41) der alten Druiden die Briten kamen, [um] in ihnen anzubeten. Die Druiden waren die Priester der alten Briten. Die Religion, welche diese Priester lehrten, war sehr grausam. Sie hieß (19, 19; 46, 5; 19, 16) Druidismus. Wenn (60, 38) sie die Gunst irgendeines ihrer Götter
- 20 gewinnen oder seinen Zorn abwenden wollten (40, 28), so stellten sie große Käfige aus Flechtwerk auf, in denen sie Rindvieh oder sogar Menschen als (ein) Opfer für („zu“ 60, 26) den Gott verbrannten. Ihre Haupt- (59, 1; 61, 12) Gottheit war die Sonne, welche sie als die größte Macht in [der] Natur an-
- 24 beteten. Der Einfluß dieser Priester war sehr groß. Sehr wenige Leute traten ihnen entgegen, weil niemand (19, 1; 59, 30) mit demjenigen zu sprechen wagte, welcher einen Priester beleidigt hatte. Die Mistel ist eine Pflanze, welche die Druiden [für] heilig hielten. In England wächst die Mistel auf der Eiche und
- 28 auf dem Apfelbaum. Wenn sie auf dem Eichbaum wuchs, hielten die Druiden sie [für] besonders (60, 36) heilig. Diese Pflanze wird noch immer (46, 9) in England verwendet (gebraucht), aber nicht bei (at) den Opfern, sondern als (eine) Weihnachtsdekoration. — Die britischen Inseln, welche einige phönizische
- 32 Seeleute die Zinninseln genannt hatten, gehörten den Kelten, welche etwa 50 Jahre nach Christo von den Römern unterjocht (erobert) wurden. Als die Römer ihre Herrschaft über (over) einen großen Teil der Insel ausgedehnt hatten, versuchten (37, 28; 61, 25) die Druiden, welche die römische Herrschaft
- 36 nicht annehmen wollten (40, 29), das Volk anzustacheln, [sich] zu empören. Deshalb (56, 4; 21, 10; 27, 32; 27, 34) verfolgten sie die Römer. — Die Kelten erlitten viel Ungemach (58, 12) durch (58, 14) die Pisten und Schotten, vor deren Einfällen sie gar sehr (very much) bange waren. Um die Briten gegen
- 40 diese Feinde zu (61, 22; 61, 18) verteidigen, deren Angriffe (59, 2) auch (35, 7; 46, 11) den Römern sehr gefährlich (59, 25) waren, erbauten die letzteren (56, 19) Wälle über den engen Teil der Insel. Schließlich (28, 2) wurden die Römer gezwungen, ihre Truppen aus Britannien zurückzuziehen.
- 44 B. Reflexive Fürwörter und Verben; Verben, die nur im Deutschen reflexiv: Gr. § 40. § 42 a, b u. A., c u. A. 1 und 2. § 82 a, b. — „so“ im Nachsage unübersetzt.

Die Pikten, vor deren Einfällen die Briten sich immer sehr (much; gar sehr very much 61, 9) gefürchtet hatten, kamen von Schottland herab (down 21, 2), als die Römer ihre Truppen zurückgezogen hatten. Die unglücklichen (59, 38) Briten, die sich nicht auf ihre eigenen Streitkräfte verlassen (58, 38) 4 konnten, baten (fragten 21, 2) die Angeln, ihnen gegen ihre ungestümen Feinde zu helfen. Die letzteren (56, 19), denen (oder: sie, denen) das Land der Briten wohl bekannt war, willigten bereitwillig ein, diese Hilfe zu leisten (61, 26). In ihren langen schnellen Schiffen kamen sie aus Deutschland über das Meer, 8 griffen die Pikten an und trieben sie nach (to) ihren Bergen zurück. Sie waren nicht allein gekommen, sondern sie hatten ihre Frauen und Kinder und ihre Freunde, die Jüten und Sachsen, [mit]gebracht. Da sie das Land derer, denen sie Hilfe brachten, sehr angenehm fanden, begannen sie sich dort niederzulassen 12 und zwangen die Briten, sich nach dem westlichen Teile (61, 10) der Insel zurückzuziehen. Ist es nicht ein guter Plan (a good plan 56, 42) für die Bewohner (56, 26) eines Landes, stets bereit (15, 4; 18, 6; 24, 27) zu sein, sich zu verteidigen? Wenn man sich auf die Hilfe anderer (Leute: of other people) verläßt 19 (58, 38), wenn man seine eigene Selbstverteidigung vernachlässigt, so wird (58, 20; 41, 8) man leicht (57, 21) unfähig, sich zu verteidigen. Darum (61, 24; 56, 4) müssen wir (45, 10) uns hüten (take care 59, 16) und uns bereit machen (41, 8), uns gegen unsere Feinde zu verteidigen. — Als Papst Gregor der Große 20 noch ein junger Priester war, ereignete es sich eines Tages (Aufs. der Zeit 60, 9; 61, 48), daß [er], als er am Marktplatz zu Rom vorbeiging, (er) einige Kinder bemerkte, deren Augen nicht dunkel, sondern blau waren, und deren Haut[farbe] hellblond war. Als der Kaufmann, der sie verkaufen wollte (40, 29), ihm gesagt 24 hatte, daß diese Knaben Angeln wären (waren), erwiderte er: „Da ihre Gesichter so engelgleich sind, so sollten sie nicht Angeln, sondern Engel sein.“ Als in späteren Jahren derselbe Priester sich ausgezeichnet hatte und Papst geworden war, schickte er einen Missionar nach England. Augustin landete dort i. J. 597 28 an und ging zuerst zum Könige von Kent, dessen Gemahlin Bertha, die Tochter eines fränkischen Königs, bereits selbst eine Gläubige war. Bald (59, 10) darauf (62, 10) wurden sowohl der König selbst als auch (56, 41; 62, 28) viele seiner Leute bekehrt und getauft. Viele Jahre hierauf ging Winfrid, ein englischer 32 Missionar, nach Deutschland, [um] seinen heidnischen Bewohnern das Evangelium zu predigen. Im Jahre 748 wurde Winfrid oder Bonifazius der erste Erzbischof von Mainz. — Als die beiden Freunde die Steine, die bei dem Dorfe Hollaright standen, betrachtet hatten, sagte einer von ihnen: „Weißt du, 36 wieviel Steine dies sind (wie viele von diesen Steine es gibt)?“ — „Zähle sie selbst,“ erwiderte der andere, „ich habe mich bemüht (61, 25; 57, 6), sie mehrmals selbst zu zählen, aber ich brachte es nie fertig, dieselbe Anzahl zweimal hintereinander (60, 15) zu erhalten (40, 24).“ — Die Briten, welche die Pikten 40 oft angriffen, konnten sich nicht verteidigen. Wirßt du dich verteidigen, wenn du angegriffen wirst? Ich würde mich verteidigt haben, wenn ich angegriffen worden wäre. Wir werden uns verteidigen, wenn die Feinde mit uns Krieg führen wollen (kommen uns zu bekriegen). Als die Briten völlig unfähig ge- 44 worden waren, sich gegen die Pikten und Schotten zu verteidigen und sie aus

(14, 15) ihrem Lande zu vertreiben, glaubten sie, es würde ein guter Plan (a good plan) sein, sich an die Deutschen um Beistand zu wenden. Die Deutschen, denen Teile Britanniens bereits bekannt waren, willigten bereitwillig ein, dies zu tun. Die Briten hatten keinen Grund, ihnen dafür zu danken. Die Insel, auf welcher die Anführer (Seite 58, 14) der deutschen Stämme landeten, liegt in dem nordöstlichen Teile (61, 11) Kent's. Ihr Name ist Thanet. Ihre Führer sollen (62, 8) Hengist und Horfa gewesen sein. Einige Jüten sollen sich auf der Insel Wight niedergelassen (61, 31) haben. Die Sachsen beschützten (to give help to 61, 26) diejenigen nicht, die sich an sie um Beistand gewandt hatten, sondern da sie ihr Land sehr angenehm fanden (findend ihr L...), nahmen sie es für sich. — Von Kent, wo es zuerst gepredigt worden war, verbreitete sich das Evangelium bald hierauf über (62, 32) Northumbrien und andere Teile Englands. Auf ihrer ersten Expedition verließen sich (58, 38) Dr. Leichhardt und seine [Reise-]Gesellschaft oft auf ihre Flinten, [um] etwas frisches Fleisch zu bekommen (40, 34). Können wir uns auf dich verlassen? Verläßt du dich auf ihn? Wirßt du dich auf dich verlassen? Ist es nicht ein guter Plan (a good plan), sich stets auf sich selbst zu verlassen? Wenn ihr euch nicht auf eure eigenen (62, 20) Kräfte (61, 17) verlassen könnt, versucht die Hilfe eurer Freunde zu erlangen (40, 34). Da die Sachsen den östlichen Teil Britanniens für sich haben wollten (40, 29), zwangen sie die Briten, sich nach (to) dem Westen der Insel zurückzuziehen. Als Leichhardts Gefährten sich in ihre Zelte (zu ihren) zurückgezogen hatten, wurden sie durch ein lautes Lärmen der Wilden aufgeweckt, welche Speere gegen sie zu werfen angefangen hatten. Wann zogst du dich gestern auf (to) dein Zimmer zurück? Wir wollen (laßt uns) uns in acht nehmen (to take care 59, 16) und uns gegen diejenigen bereit halten (41, 8), die uns angreifen wollen (40, 28). Es ereignete sich eines Tages, daß ein junger Priester am Marktplatz in Rom vorbeikam. Es ereignete sich, daß einige Kinder dorthin geschickt waren, [um] verkauft zu werden. Da sie blaue Augen und helles Haar hatten, bemerkte der Priester sie, und da er gern wissen wollte (und sich wundernd 60, 12), wer sie waren, fragte er den Kaufmann, aus welchem Lande sie kämen (kamen). Es ereignet sich oft, daß wir an einer Sache vorbeigehen und sie nicht bemerken. Worauf sahst ihr hin (60, 11), als ihr an uns vorbeingit? Dieser Priester zeichnete sich hernach (62, 10) aus und wurde Papst. Er erinnerte sich der Kinder, denen er auf dem Marktplatz in Rom begegnet war (to meet with 60, 20), und schickte Missionare nach ihrem Lande aus. Da Bob noch an die Worte dachte (sich der Worte erinnerte), die der Doktor zu ihm gesagt hatte, so beeilte er sich und zog sich an (14, 11). Erinnerst du dich des Mannes, den wir letzte Woche (14, 13) sahen? Da wir unsere Geschichtsaufgabe nicht mehr können (uns nicht erinnern), wollen wir (laßt uns) uns hinsehen (17, 8), [um] sie wieder zu lernen. Wir setzten uns, als der Lehrer ins Zimmer getreten war. Wir würden uns gesetzt haben, wenn Stühle (57, 5) für uns dagewesen wären. Als Wilhelm II. nach Windsor gegangen war, hielt er sich vier Tage dort auf (56, 6). Wie lange hielt er sich in London auf? Wie lange hieltest du dich bei (34, 32) deinen Freunden auf. Obgleich Herr Washington R. sehr schwach war, versuchte

(57, 6) er, die Leitung seines Unternehmens (Werkes) von seinem Stuhle am Fenster seines Zimmers fortzusetzen. Als die Briten versuchten (61, 25), ihren Feinden Widerstand zu leisten, fanden sie sich zu schwach. Der Brooklyner Pfeiler (Turm) [für sich allein =] selbst enthält fast 40 000 Kubikfellen (of 4 57, 25) Mauerwerk. Die Römer wurden ihrerseits (selbst) von den deutschen Stämmen (61, 16) angegriffen. Die Briten wandten sich an ihre Feinde selbst um Beistand (61, 24). Sollen wir uns an unsere Feinde selbst wenden? Henry Kendall selbst, der große australische Dichter, hat ein rührendes Gedicht 8 Leichhardt zu Ehren (58, 17) geschrieben. Warum zählst du die Steine nicht selbst (60, 18)? Sie zählte das Geld nicht selbst. Die Brücke selbst macht einen großen Eindruck auf einen Besucher (57, 18). Wir wissen nicht, ob Leichhardt und alle Gefährten, die er mit sich (59, 28) hatte, von den Eingeborenen getötet 12 wurden oder in einer Überschwemmung ertranken. Wie viele Europäer hatte L. auf seiner ersten Reise mit sich (58, 34)? Wie viele Pferde nahmen sie mit sich (58, 36)? Wieviel Geld nimmst du mit dir, als du nach Amerika abreistest (aufbrachst)? Wir werden uns verteidigen, wenn die Feinde (kommen) uns in 16 unserem [Vater]lande an(zu)greifen. Seid stets bereits (15, 4), euch gegen die Angriffe eurer Feinde zu verteidigen. Wenn man angegriffen wird, muß man sich verteidigen. Obgleich Leichhardts Gefährten ihre Zelte nicht weit voneinander aufgeschlagen (59, 8) hatten, kamen die Wilden, [um] sie während der 20 Nacht anzugreifen. Ich sagte dem Herrn, den ich vorige Woche (14, 13) traf (60, 20), daß wir einander gegen alle Leute helfen sollten, die uns gegeneinander hegen (61, 25) wollten (40, 28). Wir wollen (Laßt uns) hoffen, daß die Knaben und Herr Wilson sich wiedersehen werden, wenn der Kapitän von Südafrika 24 zurückkommt. Wohnt (61, 32) ihr weit voneinander?

Composition V.

A. Hilfsverben § 73 u. § 75 [ganz, jedoch nicht b 6 und nicht die Anm. 2. 3. 4 von § 75 c]; unbezeichneter Dativ § 84 c. § 115 a. b. 28

Der größte der altenglischen Monarchen war Alfred der Große. Er soll die geistigen und wirtschaftlichen Interessen (59, 1) seiner Untertanen gefördert haben. Er kann fürwahr (indeed 2, 17) der Vater seines Volkes genannt werden. Denn können wir uns eine edlere (64, 19) Aufgabe vorstellen (58, 32) für einen 32 König, als für sein Königreich zu arbeiten und zu leben und [darnach] zu trachten (to strive 63, 1), den Wohlstand und die Gesittung (63, 5) seines Volkes zu erhöhen? Wir haben diese drei letzten Wochen (30, 21) nicht ausgehen können, sondern haben tüchtig (hart 31, 8) arbeiten müssen. Ich wünschte (wünsche 36 17, 14), wir hätten unsere Prüfungen beendet (17, 14). Wirßt du dein Einpacken heute anfangen (30, 35; 31, 20) oder willst du (40, 31) morgen um 6 Uhr aufstehen? Denn ich vermute (60, 19), du weißt, daß unser Zug bald nach 8 Uhr abfährt (30, 36). Da Bob und Tim sicher verjest wurden (39, 5), durften sie 40 die drei Bücher [sich aus-]wählen (38, 28), die sie am liebsten lesen mochten (am meisten zu lesen liebten 45, 32). Wer von euch Knaben kann Latein und Griechisch? Wer von euch kann nicht Cricket oder Lawn-Tennis spielen? Wenn du diese zwei Spiele (38, 22) nicht kannst, so solltest du sie lernen. Wann 44 wirßt du anfangen?

Wollte (62, 8) der Kaufmann die Knaben, die er auf den Marktplatz in Rom gebracht hatte, nicht verkaufen? Da die Knaben nicht zu Fuß nach Hydeparck gehen wollten, so fuhren sie mit dem (nahmen sie einen) Omnibus (27, 28). Wenn die Druiden die Günst (irgend) eines Gottes gewinnen oder seinen Zorn abwenden wollten, verbrannten sie ihm zu Ehren (58, 17) Vieh. Da Alfred die geistigen Interessen seines Volkes fördern wollte, so rief er gelehrte Männer von jenseits des Meeres in (to) sein Land. Als Leichhardt nach Berlin gekommen war, wollte (58, 21) er klassische [Philologie] studieren. Die Römer verfolgten die Druiden, die ihre Herrschaft nicht annehmen wollten (56, 34). Ein König, der ein wahrer (58, 26) Vater seines Volkes sein will, sollte alles (58, 24) für die Interessen seiner Untertanen aufzugeben willens sein. — Die Knaben durften (43, 30) sich eine Flasche Jngwer-Brauselimonade (30, 34) kaufen (durften haben). Dürfen wir [hin-]gehen und (für uns) selbst einige Butterbrote (38, 3) nehmen? Da der Eingeborene ein paar Worte gebrochen Englisch konnte, so nahmen sie ihn als ihren Führer (59, 22). Konntest du deine Geschichtsaufgabe, als du sie aufzugeben (to say, to say off 30, 13) hattest? Kannst du Französisch? Jawohl, ich kann es lesen, aber ich kann es nicht sprechen. Ich kann noch (46, 8) etwas (41, 29) Latein, aber ich habe mein Griechisch völlig (24, 30; 49, 13) vergessen. Du hättest aufhören sollen zu schwachen (17, 19), als der Lehrer ins Zimmer getreten war. Ihr dürft nicht mit (18, 11) einander (§ 42 c. A. 1) sprechen. Ich möchte (45, 33; 45, 4) jetzt (15, 4) nicht zuviel Geld ausgeben. Würdest du mit uns in London bleiben wollen? Die Kinder waren gern (45, 32) im Zoologischen Garten (39, 16). Sollten wir diesen Ort jetzt nicht kennen (43, 8)? sagte Bob zu Tim. Da die Römer ihre Truppen aus Britannien (61, 15) hatten zurückziehen müssen, so konnten die Briten, die nunmehr sich selbst überlassen waren (61, 19), sich nicht gegen die ungestümen (61, 21) Angriffe der Pikten und Schotten verteidigen. Wenn du am Ende des Semesters nicht versetzt wirst (37, 34), so wirst du noch ein (46, 7) Jahr hier bleiben müssen. Hättet ihr warten müssen? Da wir uns nicht verteidigen konnten, so hätten ihr uns verteidigen sollen (45, 12). Sollte man sich nicht stets (immer) verteidigen können (57, 5)? Du hättest tüchtiger arbeiten sollen (45, 14; 31, 8), wenn du hättest versetzt werden wollen. Du hättest dich nicht setzen sollen, ehe du Erlaubnis erhalten hättest (43, 30). Du hättest Herrn Evans fragen (21, 2) können, ob du könntest mit uns spazieren gehen (38, 6). Wenn die alten Könige Englands das Fest hätten miterleben (55, 26) können, das die Königin ihrem Enkel gab, so würden sie sehr erstaunt gewesen sein. Hättet ihr nicht um 1/2 10 Uhr kommen können? Wir hätten um 1/4 10 kommen können, aber wir wußten nicht, daß wir dich hier finden würden. Ein junger Priester soll (62, 8) am Marktplatz vorbeigekommen sein und gefragt haben, wer die Kinder wären (waren)? Soll der Kaufmann nicht erwidert haben, daß es (sie) Angeln seien (waren)? Die Kinder sollen in Rom, wo fast jedermann dunkel[sarbig] ist, von vielen Leuten bemerkt worden sein. Tim sagte dem Kutscher, er solle nicht warten, bis Nelson von seiner Säule (27, 4) herunterkäme. Der Mann tat nicht, wie ihm gesagt worden war (62, 21), sondern er vergaß, die Steine zu zählen. Werdet ihr morgen nicht

ausgehen dürfen? Ich möchte morgen gern ausgehen. Möchtest du morgen gern zu Hause bleiben?

B: Gerundium § 89, ohne die Anm. auf S. 249 — verbundenen u. absol. Partiz. § 88 Regel 2 b. c. e (bis laid claim to the English throne auf S. 245) ⁴ und ferner die 'Caution' auf S. 246 — Affus. mit Inf. § 87c nebst Bem. 1. 2. 3 — Affus. abweichend vom Deutschen § 84 b, dopp. Affus. 84 a, — in order to „um zu“ 63, 36; to „um zu“ 64, 32; — that „damit“ 59, 18; in order that „damit“ 64, 17.

Write out the following sentences, changing (turning), while doing so, the gerund phrases into conjunctive clauses: 35, 29; 37, 3; 37, 4; 44, 17; 44, 20; 62, 5; 63, 37; 63, 37; 64, 29.

Da Eduard des Bekenners Enkel (55, 29) erst zehn Jahr alt war, und da ein zehn Jahr alter König zu jener Zeit (61, 41) für unmöglich gehalten wurde, ¹² ward Harold zum Nachfolger Eduards erwählt. Wilhelm, [der] Herzog von [der] Normandie, indessen (57, 7) behauptete, daß er der rechtmäßige Erbe sei (war). „Eduard war es“, sagte er, „der (es war E., welcher) mich zu seinem Nachfolger zu ernennen versprach, als ich seinem Hofe i. J. 1057 einen Besuch ab- ¹⁶ stattete (gekommen war abzustatten), und Harold selbst hat geschworen, mir zu helfen, in den sicheren Besitz des Thrones zu gelangen (63, 32). Ich will nicht irgend jemand (25, 1) gestatten, [das] was mir gehört (63, 23; 20, 22) [in Besitz] zu halten (64, 36), und wie (as = 60, 28) ich schwere Kämpfe um mein Herzog- ²⁰ tum zu bestehen hatte (63, 29), werde ich jetzt wiederum (59, 32) in den Kampf ziehen (kämpfen), [um] meinen Anspruch auf den englischen Thron zu unterstützen.“ Als er davon hörte, daß Wilhelm in England eingefallen sei (63, 35), eilte Harold, der im Norden Englands mit seinem Bruder im Kampfe lag (be- ²⁴ schäftigt war [62, 42] gegen seinen Bruder zu kämpfen), welcher (sein Relativsatz) seine Oberhoheit (61, 7) nicht annehmen (64, 29) wollte, nach dem südlichen Teile der Insel (61, 10), [um] Wilhelm entgegenzutreten, der bei Hastings gelandet war. Er traf ihn am 15. Okt. 1066 bei Senlac, und in der Meinung ²⁸ (vermutend 60, 19), seine Stellung sei stark genug, begann er am folgenden Tage die Schlacht, ohne die Ankunft aller seiner Truppen abzuwarten (63, 38). Die Engländer verteidigten sich mit ihren Streitärten, und mancher (55, 23) Normanne wurde wie [eine Stange] Holz niedergehauen. Und obgleich es Wilhelm ³² durch eine List gelang, eine große Zahl der Engländer niederzumegeln, so setzten sie doch (46, 9) ihren Kampf hartnäckig fort, bis Harold, dessen Auge durch einen normannischen Pfeil durchbohrt worden war, tot [nieder]fiel. Als sie ihren König niedergestreckt sahen (64, 20), verloren die Engländer alle Hoffnung, je die Schlacht ³⁶ gewinnen zu können (59, 32), und flohen nach (in 58, 10) allen Richtungen, wobei sie sehr viele Verwundete und Erschlagene (63, 44) zurück (hinten 59, 12) ließen.

Glaubst du nicht, daß, wenn wir gerade (45, 24; 24, 23) vor uns [hin]- ³⁸ zielen (64, 15), wir nur unsre Pfeile vergeuden? Wenn wir hoch hinauf in ⁴⁰ die Luft [hinein]schießen, so wird das (das . . Schießen wird) eine bessere Wirkung haben (62, 27). Nach der Ankunft der Engländer (61, 36; 64, 1) verloren die Briten den größeren Teil ihres eigenen Landes. Obgleich sehr viele von ihnen (von ihrer Zahl) von den Normanen niedergemacht worden waren (64, 10), ⁴⁴ setzten die Sachsen den Kampf fort (64, 11). Das Herumlaufen in der frischen Seeluft machte die Knaben sehr hungrig (43, 35). Als seine australischen Lands-

leute alle Hoffnung (59, 31), Leichhardt je wieder zu finden, aufgegeben hatten, errichteten sie ihm in der Hauptstadt von Neu-Süd-wales ein Standbild. Wir hatten keine Hoffnung, ihn je wieder zu sehen. Die Errichtung von festen
 4 Burgen an (in) mehreren wichtigen Plätzen des Landes war Wilhelms Mittel, die Engländer in Unterwürfigkeit (64, 36) zu halten. Das Auswendiglernen langer Stellen (46, 36) ist ein gutes Mittel, Sprachen zu lernen. Da sie zu spät kamen (14, 14), sollten die Knaben zuerst nachsitzen (entgingen die Knaben mit
 8 genauer Not dem Nachsitzen 40, 15). Da wir unsre Gesichtsaufgabe nicht konnten, entgingen wir mit genauer Not dem Nachsitzen. Die Engländer, die (Part. Präs.) dem Hasardspiel sehr ergeben waren (62, 18), verloren oft ihre eigene persönliche Freiheit. Die phönizischen Seeleute kamen nach Britannien
 12 zu dem Zwecke, mit (in) Zinn zu handeln (60, 42). Bob lernte gern etwas über australische Geographie (45, 32). Um (63, 36) die britischen Kisten daran zu hindern (61, 4), irgendwelche Hilfe nach Gallien zu schicken, brach Cäsar auf (ging C.), [um] gegen die Briten in Britannien selbst zu kämpfen (61, 3). Wer
 16 will uns verhindern, dorthin zu gehen? Wir wissen nicht, ob es wahr ist, daß Harold geschworen hatte, Wilhelm bei der Erlangung des Thrones behilflich zu sein (63, 32). Die Knaben brachten den Nachmittag in Süd-Kensington damit zu, sich die Museen anzusehen (40, 24). Ich glaube, er verwandte mehr als
 20 15 Minuten auf die Betrachtung (60, 11) deines schönen Reißzeuges (38, 33). Hundert Jahre nachdem Cäsar nach Britannien gekommen war, war es den Römern gelungen, den größeren Teil jener Insel zu erobern. Gelang es Cäsar nicht, Gallien in sieben Jahren zu erobern? Alfred hatte schwer zu kämpfen
 24 (63, 29), ehe es ihm gelang, die Dänen zu schlagen (zu erobern 61, 3). Während er mit der Anlegung der Brückenpfeiler (57, 1) beschäftigt war, erhielt Möbbling eine tödliche (64, 2) Verletzung an seinem Fuß. Wir waren [damit] beschäftigt, unser Exerzitium zu machen (17, 16), als die Tür [sich] öffnete. Sollten Knaben
 28 nicht immer zu plaudern aufhören (17, 19), wenn der Lehrer ins Zimmer tritt? Du hättest aufhören sollen zu plaudern, ehe der Lehrer ins Zimmer getreten war. Bist du fertig mit dem Lernen (40, 11; 46, 33) deiner Lektion? In einigen Minuten werde ich mit (dem Schreiben) meiner Abschrift fertig sein.
 32 Ich erinnere mich (62, 12), diese Knaben vorige Woche (14, 13) gesehen zu haben. Wilhelm war ärgerlich darüber, daß er von Harold getäuscht worden war (63, 33). Da er ärgerlich darüber war, daß Harold ihn auf diese Weise (63, 34) getäuscht habe, so fiel er in England ein (ging er einzufallen).
 36 Verdrießlich (angry) darüber, daß wir wieder zu spät kamen, ließ der Lehrer uns nachsitzen (behielt uns drin). Verdrießlich darüber, daß sie nicht zur rechten Zeit gekommen waren (15, 8), ließ der Lehrer die Knaben nachsitzen. Als er von Wilhelms Ankunft in England hörte (63, 37), verließ Harold York und
 40 marschierte nach Senlac. Als wir von der Ankunft unsrer Mutter auf dem Bahnhof hörten, gingen wir ihr entgegen (35, 26; 63, 44). Als jemand dem Priester sagte (62, 5), diese Kinder wären Angeln, erwiderte er, daß sie Engel sein sollten. Wilhelm verstärkte seine Stellung dadurch, daß er in London eine
 44 Festung baute und dadurch, daß er eine ähnliche feste Burg in der alten Hauptstadt der westsächsischen Könige selbst (64, 35) errichtete. Dadurch, daß die Römer

mehrere Landstraßen (61, 10) bauten (machten), konnten sie nach jedem (beliebigen 61, 11) Teile der Insel gelangen (41, 6). Statt den ganzen Pachtzins in Korn (65, 2) oder Vieh oder Geld zu zahlen, bezahlten die Pächter nur [einen] Teil desselben auf jene Weise und mußten für das übrige ihren Oberen Kriegsdienste leisten. 4 Statt daß ich ihn besuchte (ging ihn zu sehen), besuchte er mich. Der Knabe verließ das Zimmer, ohne irgend jemand irgend etwas darüber zu sagen; er ging und las (zu lesen) in dem Zimmer seiner Mutter, ohne daß sie irgend etwas darüber wußte.

C. Parsing, Analysis (§ 119, note). — Sentence (Simple, Compound, 8 Complex), Phrase, Clause (§ 120, and footnote § 121).

Exercise: — 1. Parse (in English) 63, 14—16. — 2. Analyse (in English, saying which sentences are simple, compound, complex) 63, 17—22.

Composition VI.

12

A. (Unbestimmte Fürwörter § 47; a great many, a good many; a great deal of, a good deal of § 50 A. 2; most die meisten, part § 22; others, the others; das Adjektiv § 48—50; 53—54; 55 a. b. c; 56 a. b; 57 a.)

Die Herzogin von Burgund, deren Bücherwart Carton war, war die 16 Schwester des englischen Königs Eduard IV. Ihr Gemahl war der berühmte Karl der Kühne (59, 25). Während der Regierung (55, 22) Heinrichs VI., dessen Nachfolger Eduard IV. war, geschah (war) es, daß durch den Beistand (61, 24) der Jeanne d'Arc Karl VII. zum König von Frankreich in Rheims gekrönt 20 wurde, nachdem der englische König von Orleans zurückgetrieben war. Der Erfinder der Buchdruckerkunst ist Johann Gutenberg, der um das Jahr 1450 in Mainz lebte (61, 32). Als diese Stadt i. J. 1462 erobert worden war, begann die Kunst sich über sehr viele Länder zu verbreiten (62, 32) und wurde 24 auch in Flandern eingeführt, wo Carton zu jener Zeit (61, 41) wohnte (43, 14; 60, 6). Wir wissen nicht, ob Carton selbst den großen Einfluß (60, 31) völlig erkannte (57, 18; 65, 34), den diese Kunst auf die Entwicklung der Welt (57, 12) im allgemeinen (56, 18) zu haben bestimmt war (66, 23); doch es ist sicher (certain 28 62, 14), daß er i. J. 1476 nach England zurückkehrte und in Westminster eine Druckerei eröffnete (eine Druckpresse aufstellte). Nach sehr vielen Schwierigkeiten, gegen die er zu kämpfen hatte, gelang es ihm endlich, das erste Buch in England zu drucken. Sehr viele andere, unter (among 61, 36) denen auch Chaucers Werke 32 waren (es gab), folgten (64, 9) diesem ersten Buche. Keines von ihnen war gänzlich (61, 22) frei von Druckfehlern, mehrere in der Tat (2, 17) enthalten ziemlich viele.

B. (Persönliches Passiv § 81 c ohne die Anm.; § 75 b 7 Anm. 1 u. 2 — „man“ § 41 e — „lassen“, „befehlen“ [§ 87 c. Bem. 4.] — (Progressive und emphatische 36 Form § 76, 78, 79 mit Anm. 2 — Indikativ in indirekter Rede § 86 a — Irreale Bedingungsätze § 86 d Regel 2, Seite 238 oben; § 75 a 3) — Apposition § 39 — „bis“ § 107 — Perfekt und 3pf. § 85 — § 117 b).

Change from Passive to Active: Change the following sentences so as to 40 have (to get) the active wherever there is a passive voice: — 55, 11; 58, 12; 58, 16; 58, 38; 59, 12; 59, 16; 59, 27; 59, 31—34; 60, 32—33; 61, 32; 62, 21; 63, 9.

Wie gefährlich auch die Wunden waren, welche seine beiden Gefährten erhalten hatten, so gelang es [doch] der Geschicklichkeit des Dr. Leichhardt, ihrer 44 beider Leben zu retten. Dem Gilbert allein, der tot zusammengestürzt (gefallen) war, als er aus seinem Zelte herauskam, konnte nicht geholfen werden. Er soll auf dem 16.^o südlicher Breite [und] dem 142.^o östlicher Länge begraben worden sein.

Caxton wurde früher zuweilen (53, 21) als der Erfinder der Buchdrucker-
 kunst genannt (56, 18), aber jetzt weiß jedermann, daß diese (jene) Kunst von
 Mainz nach Brügge eingeführt worden war, ehe Caxton sie dort lernte. —
 4 Niemandem von denjenigen, von welchen ein Druide beleidigt worden war, war
 es erlaubt, von irgend einem seiner Freunde angerebet (to speak to) zu werden,
 und nicht durfte er (§ 75 a, Anm. 1) bei den großen Opfern gegenwärtig sein.
 — Kaum wird einem Befehle je schleuniger gehorcht werden (62, 21), als dem
 8 [gehört worden ist], welchen der Papst Gregor dem Augustin gegeben hatte.
 Dem Befehle gehorchend, soll der Priester sofort zu dem Könige von Kent ge-
 gangen sein, dessen Gemahlin (Königin), die Tochter eines fränkischen Königs,
 bereits getauft worden war. — Tue stets, wie dir gesagt wird (62, 22). Er tat
 12 nie, wie ihm gesagt worden war. — Von Alfred kann mit Recht (truly 64, 5;
 justly 56, 1) gesagt werden (65, 10), daß er der weiseste und größte aller alt-
 englischen Monarchen gewesen ist. Denn strebte er nicht beständig (63, 1) [dar-
 nach], den wirtschaftlichen Wohlstand seines Volkes zu fördern und ihr geistiges
 16 Niveau (65, 40) zu heben? — Kann nicht von Harold gesagt werden, daß er
 ein tapferer Soldat gewesen ist? — Obwohl von den alten skandinavischen
 Helden sowohl als von einigen anderen Forschungsreisenden (59, 33) gesagt wird,
 daß sie sich bis (§ 107) an die Küsten Nordamerikas gewagt hätten (63, 16), so
 20 gehört [doch] die Ehre (65, 11), Amerika entdeckt zu haben, einem (some) späteren
 großen Seefahrer (58, 3). In der Tat ist er der einzige (Mann), von dem mit
 Recht behauptet werden kann, daß er jenen Kontinent entdeckt habe, denn erst
 nach seiner Entdeckung wurde derselbe (er) der europäischen Kolonisation er-
 24 schlossen (58, 14). — In den Zimmern, in denen das Abschreiben der alten
 Handschriften besorgt (getan) wurde, durften die Mönche nicht miteinander
 sprechen. — Die Jankees nahmen Neu-Amsterdam und alle übrigen Plätze, die
 von den Holländern in Besitz genommen worden waren. — Das Ende von Leich-
 28 hardts Zug war der Golf von Carpentaria (58, 11), welcher nach einem Marsche
 (Reise) erreicht wurde, auf welchem seine Gesellschaft viel Ungemach durchzumachen
 hatte. [Um] sich mit solchem frischen Fleisch zu versorgen, wie das Land [es] ge-
 währte, verließen sie sich hauptsächlich auf ihre Flinten. Der kühne Forschungs-
 32 reisende, von dem nie [etwas] gehört worden ist, seitdem er zuletzt gen Westen auf-
 brach, wird von seinen deutschen und australischen Landsleuten sehr hoch geschätzt
 (58, 16). — Die Frage, von wem, wann und zu welchem Zwecke (60, 42) die
 Steine bei (near) dem Dorfe Kollright aufgestellt wurden, wird höchstwahrscheinlich
 36 niemals beantwortet werden. Es ist ein Punkt, über den [die] Geschichts-
 schreiber noch nicht zur Übereinstimmung gelangt sind (60, 19). Vielleicht werden
 sie noch von manchem Gelehrten betrachtet (60, 11) werden, ohne daß dieser (er)
 uns ihr Geheimnis (60, 16) verkünden (erzählen) kann. — Cajus Julius Cäsar
 40 hat, wie viele Gelehrte glauben (wird von vielen Gelehrten geglaubt), den Rhein
 zwischen Koblenz und Andernach überschritten (24, 24). Da er sich vor den wilden
 (61, 21) Deutschen fürchtete, blieb Cäsar nur fünfzehn Tage (Gr. § 67) auf der
 rechten Seite (55, 5) des Rheins. Die Schlacht, in welcher Arminius die Römer
 44 i. J. 9 n. Chr. besiegte (to conquer), hat, wie vermutet wird (to suppose, per-
 sönl. Passiv), im Teutoburger Walde (the Teutoburgian Forest) stattgefunden.

Wie alt, glaubst du, war Bob (§ 64) in dem Jahre, in welchem wir ihm zuerst auf der Karthäuserschule begegneten? Ich vermute, er war ungefähr 15 [Jahre alt]. — Endlich, 5 Minuten nach $\frac{1}{47}$, kam er an, nachdem er seit (§ 107, 5) mehr als $\frac{3}{4}$ Stunde auf sich hatte warten lassen. — An (in) 4 Fahrenheit's Thermometer ist der Gefrierpunkt bei (at) 32, der Siedepunkt bei 212 Grad über Null. — Wollen Sie mir, bitte, sagen, wieviel Uhr es ist? Nach meiner Uhr ist es 5 Minuten nach $\frac{3}{45}$, aber sie ging heute früh 4 Minuten nach (to be slow, § 117 a U.). Ich (§ 41b) danke Ihnen, dann ist [ja] noch 8 viel Zeit. Ich muß (§ 80) bis (§ 107, 1) $\frac{1}{47}$ einen Brief auf die Post bringen; ich schreibe gewöhnlich alle 14 Tage nach Hause. — Die Sonne ging heute früh 15 Minuten nach 4 auf (to rise 74, 1); ich möchte gern wissen (60, 12; 45, 33), wann sie heute abend untergehen wird. 12

Wenn Harold, statt (65, 2) die Schlacht am Tage nach seiner Ankunft auf dem Senlater Berge anzufangen, gewartet hätte, bis (27, 3 oder 63, 38) alle seine Truppen sich versammelt hatten, so hätte er die Normannen schlagen können. Vielleicht (43, 31; 62, 37) auch, wenn die Engländer die List gemerkt 16 hätten, welche die verschlagenen Normannen angewandt hatten (64, 36), und wenn [sie], als sie ihren König durch einen Pfeil zu Boden gestreckt sahen, (sie) nicht alle Hoffnung verloren, sondern hartnäckig weitergekämpft hätten, würde es ihnen wahrscheinlich (30, 31) gelungen sein, die Schlacht zu gewinnen. — Nach- 20 dem er befohlen hatte, Verstärkungen aus [der] Normandie zu schicken, denen entgegenzutreten kein anderes englisches Heer da war, gelang es Wilhelm, sich zum König krönen zu lassen und sich zum Herrn (63, 19) von England zu machen.

Als sich der König von Kent von Augustin, dem (§ 39) Missionar des 24 Papstes, im Jahre 597 hatte taufen lassen, folgte (2, 7; 64, 9) er dem Weis- spiele (62, 27) seiner Gemahlin, die bereits (already 14, 9) in ihrer fränkischen Heimat (58, 33) befehrt (62, 14) worden war.

Da die Zensuren (37, 26) der Knaben sehr gut waren, ließ Herr B. die 28 Kinder nach Richmond hinunterfahren (to go down) und das „Wochen-Ende“ (39, 9; 42, 35) bei (38, 5) der Schwester von Frau B. zubringen.

Im (in) alten Britannien ließen die druidischen Priester (the Druid priests) niemanden, der ihnen entgegengetreten (60, 31) war oder nicht gehorcht 32 hatte, an den großen Opfern teilnehmen.

Die erste Ausstellung (27, 17) der Industrien (59, 37) aller Völker (nation 27, 16) fand in London im Jahre 1851 statt. Sie hatte einen großen Einfluß auf [die] englische Industrie, die von jener Zeit an (64, 35) eine wunderbare 36 Entwicklung gehabt (genommen) hat. Sie fand in einem Glashause (glass house) statt, dem sogenannten (61, 39) Kristall-Palast, den Albert, der Gemahl der Königin Viktoria (28, 9), welcher der Hauptförderer (chief promoter 59, 1; 63, 2) des Gedankens (66, 22) dieser ersten großen Ausstellung gewesen 40 war, im (in) Hyde Park (28, 11; 27, 10) hatte errichten lassen.

C. Conversion of Sentences (§ 126).

Convert (from Simple to Compound, from Compound to Simple, from Simple to Complex, from Compound to Complex, etc.) 65, 10—65, 30. 44

Zur Wiederholung

(gleichzeitig als Vorübung zur freieren Stilübung und zur freien Sazumwandlung).

[A.] Die Einführung des Christentums (of Christianity Gr. § 11) in
 4 (65, 9) Britannien milderte natürlicherweise (56, 37) den kriegerischen Geist
 (62, 35) seiner Bewohner (56, 26) und besserte (62, 17) allmählich (62, 28) ihre
 heidnischen Bräuche. — Ohne (59, 21; § 111, 1) Papst Gregor (62, 12) würden
 die Engländer (62, 16) wahrscheinlich (30, 31) viel später zum Christentum be-
 8 kehrt worden sein (61, 42). Da er seinen Wunsch, selbst nach diesem nördlichen
 Lande zu gehen, nicht befriedigen (62, 14) konnte (57, 5) so veranlaßte (62, 17)
 er einen Benediktinermönch, diesen teutonischen Stämmen das Evangelium zu
 predigen. Dank (59, 15) der Einführung des Christentums gaben die Briten
 12 bald ihr altes Laster des Glückspiels und ihre Gewohnheit, ihre eigene persö-
 nliche Freiheit auf einen Würfelwurf zu setzen (62, 20), auf (58, 24).

Die guten Geseze (56, 13) Alfreds des Großen und seine weisen Maßregeln
 (64, 26) zur Förderung von Wissen (63, 4) und Geseztung, begannen (55, 19)
 16 alsbald (59, 10) nicht nur (65, 36) das geistige und gesellschaftliche Niveau
 (65, 40), sondern auch den wirtschaftlichen Wohlstand (63, 2) zu heben (65, 40). —
 Infolge (62, 25) der Tatsache, daß (63, 3) er all seine Bemühungen (62, 31) dem
 öffentlichen Wohle (27, 20), widmete, gelang es Alfred allmählich (62, 23), sein Land
 20 (61, 33) zu heben (65, 40). Je mehr (64, 10) ein König sein Leben der öffentlichen
 Wohlfahrt (63, 2) widmet (27, 20), desto mehr kann (darf) er der Dankbarkeit
 (27, 20) seines Volkes sicher (37, 34) sein. — Zu dem Zwecke (60, 42) unter seinem
 Volke Kenntnisse und Geseztung zu verbreiten (62, 32), rief Alfred viele gelehrte
 24 Männer in (into) sein Land (61, 33) und war selbst bemüht (57, 27), lateinische
 Bücher in seine englische Muttersprache (59, 40) zu übersetzen. — Um (63, 36)
 seines Volkes Wohlfahrt zu heben, machte Alfred zuerst (first Gr. § 99) gute Ge-
 seze, dann (64, 20) suchte (62, 36) er andere Mittel (64, 36), sein Land zu fördern.

28 Vorausgesezt, daß (56, 33) die Geseze eines Landes gut sind, und daß
 ihnen bereitwillig (61, 26) gehorcht wird, und vorausgesezt, daß die geeigneten
 (proper 56, 27) Maßregeln (64, 26) ergriffen werden, das gesellschaftliche Niveau
 des Volkes (65, 40) zu heben und die natürlichen Hilfsquellen (59, 36) des Landes
 32 auszunützen (64, 36), wird die öffentliche Wohlfahrt und der Wohlstand der
 Bewohner bald gemehrt (63, 5) werden.

Die normannische Eroberung (55, 15) beeinflusste (65, 36) nicht nur (65, 37) das
 politische (69, 23) Leben der Engländer (62, 16) bedeutend (55, 23), sondern brachte
 36 auch große Veränderungen (55, 22) in ihrer Sprache hervor (56, 33). — Trotz
 (59, 15; 63, 2) der Tatsache (63, 3), daß die französische Sprache in (65, 9) allen
 Schulen des Königreichs (56, 40) eingeführt war, und obwohl (58, 27) die oberen
 Klassen zwei Jahrhunderte hindurch (for 63, 26) französisch sprachen, behauptete
 40 die englische Sprache ihren Stand (64, 12), nicht jedoch (58, 5), ohne (63, 38)
 daß sie große Veränderungen (55, 22) erlitt (58, 12). Die Nordleute (63, 18),
 die sich in Frankreich (63, 20) niedergelassen (to settle 61, 31) hatten, hatten
 [das] Französische ihrer eigenen teutonischen Sprache vorgezogen (42, 18).

44 Während im Verlauf (während 49, 16) seines Marsches (58, 29) durch die
 glühenden (brennenden) Ebenen des australischen Festlandes die Gedanken seiner

Gefährten dem Ende ihrer Reise zugewandt waren, stimmten (to make feel) Erinnerungen einer früheren Zeit, welche über ihn gekommen waren (in seinen Geist gekommen waren), Leichhardt für einen Augenblick (3, 15) traurig (58, 15); doch niemals (2, 22; 3, 12) fühlte er sich entmutigt (59, 26), und, da er die Gefahr 4 des Zögerns erkannte (wußte, was für eine Gefahr im Aufschieben (59, 21) war = there was), drang er darauf, daß (to make) seine Leute (Gesellschaft 59, 20) so schnell als möglich vorrückten.

Als trotz (59, 15) der vielen Schwierigkeiten (65, 41), gegen welche er zu kämpfen 8 gehabt hatte, und die ihn nie (2, 22; 3, 12) dermaßen (62, 35) entmutigt (59, 26) hatten, daß er (58, 24) seine Versuche (59, 26) aufgab, es Carleton endlich (27, 10) gelang, ein gedrucktes Buch herzustellen (66, 15), erfreute ihn dieser Anblick (63, 19) sehr, und dieser Erfolg (62, 31) belohnte ihn hoch (55, 28) für all seine Bemühungen. 12 Die mehrfachen (66, 16) Druckfehler jedoch (57, 7), die das Buch trotz der großen Sorgfalt, die darauf verwandt worden war (66, 14), enthielt, verdrossen ihn arg.

Es ist stets (27, 5) gefährlich, seine (§ 43 a) eigene Selbstverteidigung zu vernachlässigen (61, 23). Alle Bürger (58, 26) sollten (45, 12) stets willens und 16 bereit sein, um ihres Vaterlandes (58, 27) willen alles zu tun und herzugeben (58, 24). — Es ist bekannt, daß (persönlich!) wer für die Verteidigung der Ehre seines Landes stirbt, [als] ein Held stirbt.

[B.] Questions to be translated and to be answered: 1. Was 20 fanden zwei in Oxfordshire reisende Freunde eines Tages (Aufs. der Zeit, 60, 9) an der Landstraße? 2. Worauf blickten sie? 3. Was sagte einer von ihnen? 4. Mit wem sprach er (60, 33)? 5. Zu wem sagte er diese Worte? 6. Was erwiderte sein Freund? 7. Was für eine Legende gibt es über diese Steine? 24 8. Kannst du mir sagen (25, 1), was das Geheimnis dieser Steine ist? 9. Wann kamen die Steine hierher? 10. Wer stellte diese Steine hier auf (27, 17)? 11. Sind [die] Geschichtsschreiber über diese Frage (15, 26) einig (60, 19)? 41, 15. 12. Was vermuten einige Geschichtsschreiber? 13. Wo findet man (60, 20) 28 ähnliche Steine? 14. In welcher Grafschaft (24, 32) Englands liegt Stonehenge? 15. Wo liegt Anglesey? 16. Wie (46, 4) wurden die keltischen Priester genannt? 17. Was für eine Religion lehrten sie? 18. Welches ist der Name, unter (by) dem ihre Religion bekannt ist? 19. Warum war sie eine grausame Religion? 20. Worin 32 verbrannten sie Vieh und Menschen? 21. Was verbrannten sie in geflochtenen Käfigen? 22. Warum verbrannten sie dieselben (sie)? 23. Warum beteten sie die Sonne an? 24. Warum wagten wenige, den Priestern entgegenzutreten? 25. Welche Pflanze wird in England zu Weihnachtsdekorationen verwandt? 26. Wovon ist 36 dies ein altes Überbleibsel? 27. Warum wurde die Mistel der heiligen Eichenhaine geschnitten? 28. Wem gehörten die britischen Inseln zu (61, 41) jener Zeit? 29. Was lernen wir von Herodot über die britischen Inseln? 30. In welchem Jahrhundert vor Christus lebte Herodot? 31. Warum besuchten (kamen . . . zu 40 besuchen) die phönizischen Seeleute diese Inseln? 32. Wie (17, 30; 46, 4) nannten die phönizischen Seeleute diese Inseln? 33. Wer kam nach den Phöniziern? 34. Wen hatte Julius Cäsar bereits unterjocht (conquer)? 35. In welchem Jahre kam er nach Britannien? 36. Unterjochte er die Briten (41, 15)? 37. Wie weit hatten die 44 Römer ihre Herrschaft hundert Jahre später ausgedehnt? 38. Warum verfolgten

- sie die Druiden? 39. Warum machten die Römer Landstraßen über den südlichen Teil der Insel? 40. Wie heißt jene alte Römer[land]straße, die noch heutzutage (60, 28) vorhanden ist? 41. Vor wem waren die Briten sehr (61, 9) bange? 42. Zu 4 (60, 42) welchem Zwecke bauten die Römer einen Wall quer über den engen Teil der Insel? 43. Gegen wen wollten (40, 28) die Römer ihre Provinz schützen? 44. Welche Stadt liegt (56, 17; 55, 5; 56, 20) am Tyne? 45. Was für Veränderungen (55, 22) fanden statt während der Zeit, in welcher (daß) die Römer 8 in Britannien [ver]blieben? 46. Wann verließen die Römer die britischen Inseln? 47. Von wem wurden die Römer zu (at) jener Zeit an gegriffen? 48. Was mußten die Römer (waren gezwungen zu) tun? 49. Wie viele Jahre waren die Römer in Britannien verblieben (56, 6; 58, 4)? 50. Wo ist Leichhardt ein Standbild er- 12 richtet (59, 33; 45, 38) worden? 51. Wann wurde [die] Brooklyn[er] Brücke zum erstenmal dem Verkehr eröffnet (57, 33)? 52. Wie viele Minuten braucht man (nimmt es 57, 18; 36, 7) [um] über die Brücke zu gehen (57, 19; 57, 34; 24, 24)? 53. Welcher von den englischen Königen hatte den ersten Teil vom Schloß Windsor 16 zu bauen angefangen? 54. Wem hatten die Holländer die Stadt Neu-Amsterdam weggenommen (von [56, 21] wem genommen)? 55. Wodurch war Koblings Tod verursacht worden? 56. Welcher Fluß wird der amerikanische Rhein genannt? 57. Wer griff die Briten an, als die Römer ihre Streitkräfte von Britannien 20 zurückgezogen hatten? 58. An wen wandten sich die unglücklichen (59, 33) Briten um Beistand? 59. Wie hießen die (welches waren die Namen der (28, 25; 19, 2; 46, 5) beiden Führer der Angeln, Jüten und Sachsen? 60. Waren diese Leute imstande, die Feinde der Briten zu vertreiben? 61. Warum hatten die Briten 24 wenig Grund, ihnen zu danken? 62. Auf welcher Insel ließen die Deutschen sich nieder? 63. Wie viele Königreiche errichteten sie im Laufe der Zeit (61, 37)? 64. Welcher Papst schickte christliche Sendboten nach England? 65. Welchen König bekehrten diese Missionare? 66. Von welchem Orte verbreitete sich das 28 Evangelium über einen großen Teil Englands?
67. Welches von den sieben in England von den Angeln, Jüten und Sachsen errichteten Königreichen (59, 37; 61, 38; 56, 40) wurde der leitende (65, 1) Staat (56, 10)? Unter (among 61, 36) diesen sieben Königreichen wurde Wessex der 32 leitende Staat, nachdem sich im Jahre 827 Egbert von Wessex zum Herrn von ganz England südlich von der Forth-Fürde (61, 7; 9, 35) gemacht hatte (see page 84).
68. Wer wurde zum König erwählt, als Eduard der Bekenner gestorben war? 69. Warum war der Enkel Eduard des Bekenners nicht gewählt worden? 36 70. Wer erhob Anspruch auf den englischen Thron, als er von dem Tode Eduards und von der Wahl Harolds hörte? 71. Was hatte, wie er erklärte, Eduard der Bekenner ihm versprochen? 72. Was behauptete er, daß Harold geschworen hatte, für ihn zu tun? 73. Worüber war er ärgerlich, als er von 40 Harolds Thronbesteigung hörte? 74. Wo landete er? 75. Warum fing Harold die Schlacht an, ohne das Eintreffen aller seiner Truppen abzuwarten? 76. Was befahl der verschlagene Wilhelm seinen Leuten zu tun, als er die eng- 44 lischen Reihen fest stehen sah? 77. Merkten die Engländer die List? 78. Was bewirkte, daß (machte 62, 3; 19, 13) die Engländer alle Hoffnung die Schlacht zu gewinnen verloren? 79. Wann ließ (interrogative Form von to have § 77

U. 2) Wilhelm sich zum König von England krönen? 80. Durch welche Mittel (60, 16) gelang es Wilhelm, die Engländer niederzuhalten (64, 36)? 81. An welchen Plätzen ließ er Festungen bauen, [um] seine Stellung zu befestigen? 82. Was für ein neues System brachten die Normannen mit sich nach England? 4

83. Wer ist der erste der englischen Könige, dem der größere Teil Frankreichs gehörte? Heinrich II., der erste der Plantagenet-Könige (see page 85); er war der Erbe der normannischen Könige und ihrer Besitzungen (56, 3) in Frankreich und hatte mehrere andere französische Provinzen durch (58, 14) seinen 8 Vater und durch seine Mutter erhalten. Seine Regierung (55, 22) begann im Jahre 1154, und sein Nachfolger (63, 9) war sein Sohn Richard Löwenherz.

84. Welcher Nation gehört die Ehre, den Erfinder der Buchdruckerkunst hervorgebracht (66, 15) zu haben? 85. In welcher Stadt wohnte der Erfinder? 12 86. Gehörte Flandern dem Herzog (56, 24) von Burgund, als Carton in Brügge lebte? 87. Wie heißt der deutsche Kaiser, dessen Frau eine Tochter Karls des Kühnen (59, 25) war? 88. Etwa wieviele Jahre hatte die Erfindung der Buchdruckerkunst stattgefunden, ehe Amerika entdeckt wurde? 89. Wer waren die 16 Gefährten (58, 30) Gutenbergs in Mainz, durch deren Beistand (61, 24) der Erfinder imstande war, seine Erfindung zu machen (hervorzubringen 66, 15). 90. Weißt du, in welcher Stadt ein Denkmal zur Erinnerung an (27, 16) den Erfinder der Buchdruckerkunst errichtet worden ist? 91. Wann starb (56, 42) der 20 englische Dichter Tennyson? [43, 14. See page 141.]

Transformation of Sentences (§ 127, § 126, Sentence 9).

Exercise: A. Rewrite — in one continuous text — while transforming its several sentences — the passage 67, 27 — 67, 44. 24

B. Transform into several sentences each of the following paradigms:
 — 1. A Roman priest, having recently landed in the island of Thanet, was brought before the King of Kent. Converted by his eager words the King, whose wife was already a Christian, suffered himself to be baptized (62, 27). 23
 — 2. The difficulties were such as to discourage a man less bold than Dr. L.
 — 3. After getting reinforcements sent from the Continent, William marched on London. — 4. In spite of spending two months in Germany he has learned very little German. — 5. The undertaking was too important 32 for the Americans to assign it to anybody but the first engineer of the day. — 6. Navigation and commerce increased the prosperity of England (69, 17). — 7. Maritime enterprise develops the manly character of a nation (69, 18). — 8. The invention of printing promoted knowledge and 36 raised the intellectual standard of society (65, 40). — 9. = 59, 21—23 [*delay* subst.; to ~ = not to do a thing (not to act) at once (immediately, in time, in proper time) — to be slow or late (not to be punctual, quick, prompt) in doing a thing — to defer doing a thing 55, 20, to put off doing a thing 40 (See Proverb 176, 7; the opposite 2, 15) — to procrastinate = to put off from day to day] — [*scarcity* 49, 16 = small quantity, short supply; *adj.* = scarce; *adv.* = scarcely 66, 35; scarcely (hardly) enough (sufficient 70, 34)]. — 10. = 68, 1—7.

Death of Edward VII. and Accession of George V.

When the main bulk of this book was in type, and almost entirely printed, the sad news arrived of King Edward VII. having suddenly passed away, after a short illness, on May 6th, 1910.

King Edward VII. had acceded to the throne at the age of nearly sixty, succeeding to his mother Queen Victoria, in 1901.

After his body had lain in state, first in the Throne Room of Buckingham Palace, London, then, in order that the people might have an opportunity of paying their respect, in Westminster Abbey, the coffin was transferred to Windsor, where the king was buried, in the Royal vault in St. George's Chapel, on May 20th.

The day of his burial was observed as a day of general mourning, throughout the United Kingdom.

Among the many Kings and Ruling Princes who took part in the impressive funeral procession in London, His Imperial Majesty the German Emperor was the most conspicuous.

On the opening of the sitting of the Reichstag on the Monday following King Edward's death, Dr. Spahn, the Vice-President, said: — "The unexpected news of the demise of his Majesty King Edward VII. has deeply moved his Majesty the Emperor and the entire Imperial House. The bereavement is all the harder because ties of blood closely bound our Emperor to the deceased monarch. The entire German nation feels true and heartfelt sympathy for the mourners . . . Grief lieth heavy on the kindred English people, whose mourning for the sudden decease of the King is deep and universal. We associate ourselves with the sympathy of the entire world at the heavy loss which the British Nation, with its royal family, has suffered. As a sign of your sympathy you have risen from your seats, and thus shown that you approve of my words".

From among the numerous press comments giving utterance to the world's sympathies with the British Nation in its grievous sorrow we quote a passage of the Berlin North German Gazette (May 8th 1910): —

"King Edward did not succeed to the Throne of his fathers until he was well advanced in years. And to-day the world will be at one in the verdict that he has well used the short span of years during which it was given him to rule and that he has faithfully and successfully administered the inheritance handed down to him. With untiring devotion he placed at the service of his people and of his Empire the wealth of experience which he had gained as Heir to the Throne, his great talents of statesmanship inherited from his parents, and his brilliant personal qualities, which were extolled on all sides. And the British nation thanked him with a respect and a love which found eloquent expression on every occasion.



Photograph by W. & D. Lowney, Photographers, London SW.

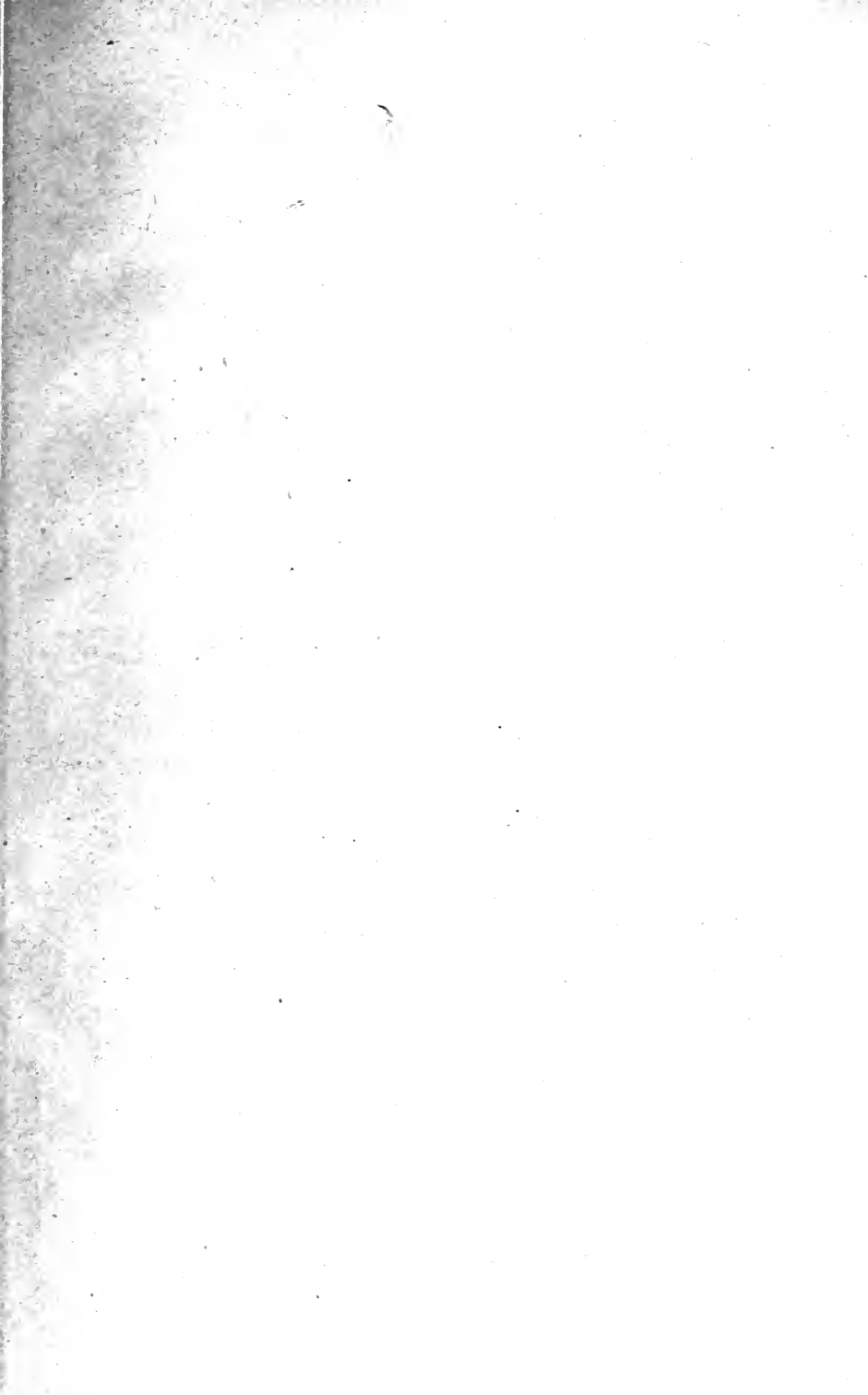
According to old tradition, each king in England is publicly proclaimed in the beginning of the new reign. The following passage shows the old-fashioned language of such a proclamation: — "We . . . do now hereby, by one Voice and Consent of Tongue and Heart, publish and proclaim That the High and Mighty Prince George Frederick Ernest Albert is now, by the Death of our late Sovereign, of Happy Memory, become our only lawful and rightful liege Lord George the Fifth, by the Grace of God, King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India: To whom we do acknowledge all Faith and constant Obedience, with all hearty and humble affection: beseeching God, by Whom Kings and Queens do reign, to bless the Royal Prince George the Fifth with long and happy years to reign over Us."

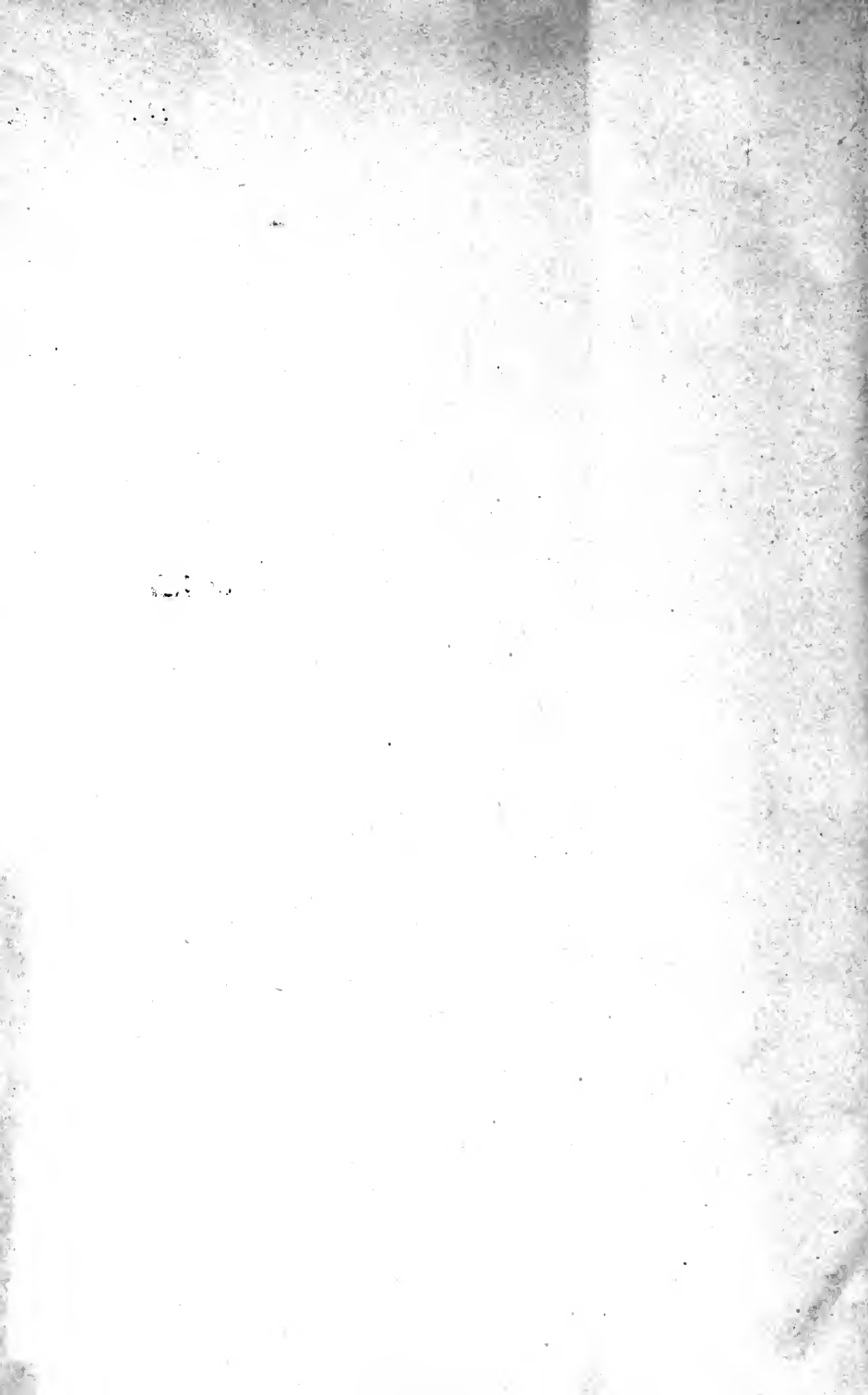
In Germany we think of the late King with sincere recognition of his personal merits and of his great qualities as supreme head of the English nation and as the ruler of a vast Empire." —

'The true value of King Edward's services to Britain and to the peace of the world' — says a London newspaper — 'can never be known until the well-guarded archives of the European Powers yield up their secrets. Men of all shades of political opinion agree that he has earned personal respect outside the bounds which British institutions set to the influence of the ruler. He encouraged worth in all sorts and conditions of men. He honoured men illustrious in science and art, in commerce, and in the learned professions, and by so doing gave effect to an ideal which he once expressed to Gambetta, "To take those who are most distinguished in science, letters, trade, and make nobles of these men, so that our nobility remains a real aristocracy." Supreme in statecraft, a pioneer in all deserving works of philanthropy, he was truly, and in the noblest sense of the word, The First Gentleman in Europe'. —

King Edward VII.'s eldest son having died in 1892, he was succeeded on the throne by his second son, George, Prince of Wales.

In an article, which bears as its heading 'The Empire and the New Sovereign', the Times says: — 'Hope and confidence will be throughout the British world the opening note of King George's reign. We have lost in King Edward a Monarch worthy of his Empire and its love, but we have gained as true a Monarch in his son. He ascends the Throne in a time of critical and momentous change. The political system, the defensive system, and the commercial system of the Empire are all alike confronted by the alternatives of rapid development or insidious decay. We cannot rest where we are. We have to adapt our methods and remodel our forms to the needs of a new and ever-changing world. We have to draw closer together if we are not to fall insensibly apart. The difficulties are great, but so is our capacity for surmounting them. We must meet them in a spirit as free from foolish optimism as devoid of doubt and fear. The desire of all parts to co-operate with each other, the binding sense of a common patriotism, the instinctive devotion to one Flag and one Throne, have never been greater than at the present time. The path towards Imperial consolidation has never yet lain so clearly in our view. These aspirations and these resolves may well centre in King George, the first of our Imperial Sovereigns to make himself as well known in the Dominions as in the Motherland. If years are given him in keeping with our strong and natural hope, the future of Imperial union will be made or marred within the period of his reign. Marred it will not be if his peoples and his statesmen can rise to the level of his own wise outlook and clear-set aim.





VOCABULARY

to the ENGLISH SCHOLAR

Words (to be learned by heart) and Notes.

the scholar	der (die) an	<i>sko'lar</i>
	Schule oder	
the student	Universität	<i>stju'dnt</i>
	Lernende oder	
	sonstwie Stu-	
	dienbefliffene	
the English	1. der, welcher	
Scholar	Englisch lernt	
the English	2. das Buch,	
Student	aus dem man	
	Englisch lernt	
special	besonders	<i>spe'st</i>
edition	Ausgabe	<i>edi'sh</i>
for	für	<i>för</i>
beginner	Anfänger	<i>begi'nör</i>
higher	höher	<i>hä'ör</i>
forms	Klassen	<i>förmz</i>
words	Wörter, Wo-	<i>wördz</i>
	kabeln	
to be learn-	auswendig zu	<i>tblörnd</i>
ed by heart	lernen	<i>bai härt</i>
to learn	lernen	<i>tlörn</i>
notes	Notizen, An-	<i>nöuts.</i>
	merkungen	

SKETCH I.

sketch	Skizze	<i>skets</i>
one	eins	<i>ün</i>
first	erster, e, es	<i>först</i>
dialogue	Zwiegespräch	<i>dä'wlog</i>
	Gespräch	
getting up	das Aufstehen	<i>get'ing v'p</i>
bedroom	Schlafzimmer	<i>bed'ram</i>
of prep.	von	<i>ov</i>
Charter-	die Rathhau-	<i>tšär'tör</i>
houseSchool	ser-Schule	<i>häus skül</i>
at	an, zu, in	<i>æt</i>
Godalming	engl. Stadt	<i>gö'dät'ming</i>
Surrey	engl. Graf-	<i>svr'i</i>
	schaf	

Tim =		<i>tim</i>
Timothy	Timotheus	<i>ti'möpi</i>
Bob = Ro-	Robert	<i>böb</i>
bert		<i>rö'bört</i>
pulling	ziehend	<i>pü'ling</i>
blanket	wollne Decke	<i>blän'ket</i>
counterpane	obere Bett-	<i>käw'ntör-</i>
	decke	<i>pēn</i>
off prep.	ab von	<i>of</i>
Bob's bed	Bob's Bett	<i>böbz bed</i>
hullo	heba	<i>hn löu'</i>
get up	stehe auf	<i>get v'p</i>
Parker rings	Parfer	<i>Parkör ringz</i>
the bell	läutet	<i>dö bet</i>
to ring	läuten	<i>tö ring</i>
bell	Glocke	<i>bet</i>
loud	laut	<i>läud</i>
enough	genug	<i>in'uf</i>
doesn't he	läutet er	<i>daznt hi</i>
ring? =	nicht?	
does he not	tut er nicht	<i>daz hi</i>
ring?	läuten?	<i>nöt</i>
waking up	aufwachend	<i>wä'king v'p</i>
to wake	wachen	<i>wä'k</i>
rubbing	reibend	<i>rö'b'ing</i>
to rub	reiben	<i>röb</i>
his eyes	seine Augen	<i>hiz äi'z</i>
eye	Auge	<i>äi</i>
what	was	<i>hät</i>
six o'clock	sechs Uhr	<i>siks'klök</i>
already	schon	<i>ä're'di</i>
still	immer noch	<i>stilt</i>
I feel	ich fühle mich	<i>äi fr't</i>
sleepy	schläfrig	<i>slü'pi</i>
sleeping	schlafend	<i>slü'p'ing</i>
to sleep	schlafen	<i>slip</i>
that's how	so ist's	<i>däts</i>
it is		<i>häwiti'z</i>
that is	das ist	<i>dät iz</i>
how	wie	<i>häu</i>

it	es	it
every morn- ing	jeden Morgen	<i>evri mōr'nɪŋ</i>
make haste	mach schnell	<i>mēik hēist</i>
haste	Haft, Eile	<i>hēist</i>
get dressed	zieh dich an (werde angezogen)	<i>get dre'st</i>
to dress	anziehen	<i>tōdres</i>
twenty	zwanzig	<i>tūe'nti</i>
minute	Minute	<i>mi'nit</i>
past	vorbei, nach	<i>pāst</i>
have you forgotten?	hast du ver- gessen?	<i>hæ'vju fɔrgə'tn</i>
to forget	vergessen	<i>fɔrget</i>
Doctor	Doktor ¹⁾	<i>dɔ'ktɔr</i>
said	sagte	<i>sēd</i>
last week	vorige Woche	<i>lāstwēk</i>
about	über, in betreff	<i>əbāut</i>
being	das Sein	<i>bɪ'ɪŋ</i>
more	mehr	<i>mōr</i>
punctual	pünktlich	<i>pʊ'nktʃuəl</i>
no	nein	<i>nōu</i>
I have not	ich habe nicht	<i>aɪhəvno't</i>
I won't be late again	ich will nicht wieder zu spät kommen	<i>aɪwʌnt bi lētə'geɪn</i>
to be late	zu spät kommen	<i>təbɪlēt</i>
late	spät	<i>lēt</i>
I won't = I will not again	ich will nicht wieder	<i>aɪwʌnt ə'geɪn</i>
to throw off	abwerfen	<i>prəʊ ɔ'f</i>
off adv.	ab, weg	<i>ɔ'f</i>
the sheet	das Laken	<i>də ʃi't</i>
to get out	aussteigen	<i>get aʊt</i>
out of prp.	aus	<i>aʊt ɔv</i>
to put on	anziehen	<i>put ɔ'n</i>
trousers	Hosen	<i>traʊ'zɔrz</i>
socks	Strümpfe	<i>sɔks</i>
to begin	anfangen	<i>bɪ'gɪn</i>

to wash	sich waschen	<i>wɔʃ</i>
I say	du hör mal ²⁾	<i>aɪ seɪ</i>
where	wo	<i>hɜər</i>
my	mein	<i>māi</i>
sponge	Schwamm	<i>sʊp'ndʒ</i>
don't you see? =	siehst du nicht?	<i>dəʊntju'siː</i>
do you not see?		<i>du ju nɒt siː</i>
there	dort, da	<i>ðeər</i>
by	bei	<i>bāi</i>
foot	Fuß	<i>fū't</i>
has dropped down	ist herunter ge- fallen	<i>hæz drɒpt dāʊn</i>
has down	hat nieder	<i>hæz dāʊn</i>
on	auf, an	<i>ɔn</i>
floor	Fußboden	<i>flɔr</i>
all right	(alles richtig) na schön	<i>ɔl raɪt nə ʃɒn</i>
I'll [= I will] pick up	ich will auf- heben	<i>aɪl pik ʌp (aɪ ʊɪt)</i>
after	nach	<i>ɑftɜr</i>
a few	einige wenige, ein paar	<i>əfju aɪn paər</i>
are you?	bist du?	<i>ɑr ju</i>
ready	bereit, fertig	<i>re'di</i>
now	nun, jetzt	<i>nāu</i>
yes	ja	<i>jɛs</i>
I'm coming	ich komme schon	<i>aɪm kʌmɪŋ</i>
I'm = I am	ich bin	<i>aɪ əm</i>
to come	kommen	<i>tə kʌm</i>
just	gerade, eben	<i>dʒʌst</i>
I am going to	ich will, bin im Begriff zu	<i>gəʊɪŋ</i>
to go	gehen	<i>gəʊ</i>
brush	Bürste, bürsten	<i>brʌʃ</i>
he brushes	er bürstet	<i>brʌʃɪz³⁾</i>
hair	Haar	<i>hɛər</i>

¹⁾ Die Direktoren (headmasters, *he'dmāstɔrz*) der größeren englischen Schulen sind vielfach Doktoren der Theologie (Divinity, *dɪvɪ'nɪti*).

²⁾ sehr vertraulich; wörtlich: ich sage.

³⁾ Nach auslautendem Zischlaute (7, 4—7), dem nicht noch ein stummes e folgt, steht in der 3. si. pres -es (gesprochen *ɪz*) statt des einfachen -s: he catches, 8, 33.

comb	Kamm	<i>kōum</i>
to put away	weglegen	<i>təputəʊi</i>
don't you want =	willst	<i>dəuntju</i>
do you not want?	du	<i>ʔont</i>
	nicht?	<i>dū ju nɔt</i>
a glass of milk	ein Glas Milch	<i>əglāsʊv mitk</i>
if	wenn	<i>if</i>
if so	wenn dies der Fall ist	
drink	trinke	<i>drɪŋk</i>
quickly adv.	schnell	<i>kʰɪkli</i>
in time	zur rechten Zeit	<i>ɪntaɪm</i>
narrative	erzählender Teil, Erzählung	<i>næ rætiʋ</i>
south	Süden, südlich	<i>sāʊp</i>
question	Frage	<i>kʰe'stʃn</i>
answer	Antwort	<i>ɑnsər</i>
who	wer	<i>hū</i>
where	wo	<i>hʰeər</i>
when	wann, wenn	<i>hʰen</i>
grammar	Grammatik	<i>græ'mər</i>
lesson	Lektion, Aufgabe, Lehrstunde	<i>le'sn</i>
learn	lerne	<i>lɔrn</i>
conjugate	konjugiere	<i>kə'ndʒʊgeɪt</i>
present	Präsens	<i>prezənt</i>
tense	Zeit, Tempus	<i>tens</i>
infinitive	Infinitiv	<i>ɪnfɪ'nɪtɪv</i>
comma	Beistrich	<i>kə'mə</i>

SKETCH II.

two	zwei	<i>tū</i>
second	zweiter, e	<i>se'kənd</i>
study	Studium, Arbeitstunde	<i>stʊdi</i>

to enter	eintreten in, be-	<i>tu entər</i>
	treten	
big	groß	<i>big</i>
boarding-house	Pensionsgebäude ¹⁾	<i>bɔr'dɪŋ haʊs</i>
to sit down	sich setzen	<i>tə sit dāʊn</i>
their poss.	ihr	<i>d̄eər</i>
desk	Bult, Schultisch	<i>desk</i>
to take out	herausnehmen, hervornehmen	<i>tə tɛɪk aʊt</i>
book	Buch	<i>bʊk</i>
paper	Papier	<i>pɛɪpər</i>
papers	schriftliche Arbeiten	<i>pɛɪpəz</i>
to speak	sprechen	<i>tə spɪk</i>
to prep.	zu	<i>tu</i>
Arthur	Arthurs	<i>ɑrθər</i>
Jackson	Jackson	<i>dʒæksn</i>
neighbour	Nachbar	<i>nɛə'bər</i>
to show	zeigen	<i>ʃəʊ</i>
me	mir, mich	<i>mɪ</i>
on prep.	an	<i>ɔn</i>
what page	welche Seite	<i>hʰɔt peɪdʒ</i>
Roman	römisch	<i>rəʊmən</i>
history	Geschichte	<i>hɪ'stɔri</i>
to begin	anfangen	<i>bə'ɡɪn</i>
to start	abgehen, anfangen	<i>stɑrt</i>
from	von (— ab)	<i>fɹəm</i>
top	Spitze, oberster Teil	<i>tɒp</i>
forty-nine	neunundvierzig	<i>fɔrtɪ'nəɪn</i>
from . . . to	von . . . bis	
it goes	es geht	<i>ɡəʊz</i>
he does	er tut	<i>dəz</i>
paragraph	Abatz	<i>pə'rəgræf</i>
fifty-eight	achtundfünzig	<i>fɪfti'eɪt</i>
three	drei	<i>θri</i>
lines	Zeilen	<i>laɪnz</i>

¹⁾ Die meisten englischen Schulen sind Alumnate. Darin wohnen die Schüler in mehreren boarding-houses (-hāʊzɪz), deren jedes einer der masters mit seiner Frau, unterstützt durch eine ältere Wirtschafterin, die matron (mə'trɒn), leitet. Außer den Dienstmädchen hat jedes boarding-house einen Mann zum Bedienen, Reinigen der Stiefel usw., den sog. house-servant (sɔrvənt) (hier Parker pɑrkər), und vielleicht noch einen jüngeren Laufburschen. Die Schulgebäude beaufsichtigt und hält in Ordnung der school-servant.

line	Zeile	<i>lā'in</i>
from the bottom	von unten	<i>botəm</i>
bottom	Grund, unterster Teil	
lot	Masse, Menge	<i>lot</i>
to read	zu lesen	<i>tə rɪd</i>
nearly	nahezu	<i>nɪərli</i>
pages	Seiten	<i>pɛɪdʒɪz</i>
to wish	wünschen	<i>tə ʍɪʃ</i>
I wish	ich wünschte wohl	
I'd = I had	ich hätte, ich hatte	<i>əɪd, əɪ'həd</i>
glad	froh	<i>glæd</i>
but	aber	<i>bət</i>
I've = I have	ich habe	<i>əv, əɪ'hæv</i>
I have got	ich habe erhalten, bekommen	<i>əɪ hæv gɒt</i>
my repetition	das was ich zum Auffagen aufhabe	<i>māɪ rɛpɪ'tɪʃən</i>
to repeat	aussagen	<i>rɛpɪt</i>
to say off	hersagen	<i>sɛɪ ɔf</i>
the Greek repetition	den zum Auswendiglernen aufgegebenen Abschnitt griechischer Poesie	
haven't = have not	habe nicht	<i>hævnt, hæv nɒt</i>
finished	beendet	<i>fɪ'nɪʃt</i>
finished doing	fertig gemacht	<i>dū'ɪŋ</i>
doing	das Tun	
not . . yet	noch nicht	<i>nɒt . . jət</i>
Latin	lateinisch	<i>lætən</i>
long	lang	<i>lɒŋ</i>
exercise	1. Übung 2. Exerzitiium	<i>ɛ'ksɜrsəɪz</i>

then	dann	<i>ðen</i>
to copy out	abschreiben	<i>kɒpi aʊt</i>
into	hinein in	<i>ɪntu</i>
Mr.	Herr	<i>mɪ'stə</i>
James	Jakob	<i>dʒeɪmz</i>
master	Lehrer	<i>mɑːstə</i>
boys	Knaben	<i>bɔɪz</i>
boy	Knabe, Schüler	<i>bɔɪ</i>
stop talking	hören auf zu sprechen	<i>stɒp tɔ'kiŋ</i>
to stop	anhalten	<i>stɒp</i>
to talk	sprechen, plaudern	<i>tɔk</i>
to stand up	aufstehen	<i>stænd ʌp</i>
quietly adv.	ruhig	<i>kwaɪ'etli</i>
sit down	setzt euch	
monitor	Ermahner ¹⁾	<i>mənɪtə</i>
to bring	bringen	<i>briŋ</i>
list	Liste	<i>lɪst</i>
to see	zu sehen	<i>sɪ</i>
whether	ob	<i>hweðə</i>
any	irgendwelche	<i>eni</i>
absent	abwesend (fehlend)	<i>æbsnt</i>
present	anwesend	<i>preznt</i>
to call over	aufrufen	<i>kɔl ɒvə</i>
the boys' names	der Knaben Namen	<i>bɔɪz nɛɪmz</i>
the boy's name	des Knaben Name	<i>bɔɪz nɛɪm</i>
to find	finden	<i>fɑɪnd</i>
that conj.	daß	<i>dæt</i>
none	keine	<i>nɒn</i>
to give	geben	<i>ɡɪv</i>
back	zurück	<i>bæk</i>
Mac Gregor ²⁾	schottischer Name	<i>mæk. greɪgə</i>
walking up	hingehend zu	<i>wɔkɪŋ ʌp tu</i>
to the master's desk	des Lehrers Pult, Kateder	<i>tə mɑːstəz desk</i>

¹⁾ Ermahner, Erinnerer = Aufseher. So heißt der mit der Aufrechterhaltung der Ordnung betraute Schüler; top-boy Primus.

²⁾ Alle mit Mac anfangenden Namen sind schottisch; sie haben alle mit wenigen Ausnahmen (z. B. Mackintosh) den Akzent auf der zweiten Silbe, also Mackenzie = *mæke'nzi*, Macbeth (10, 8), Macaulay (10, 7).

please	bitte	<i>pliz</i>
sir	mein Herr	<i>sər</i>
this	dieser, e, es	<i>dīs</i>
to mean	bedeuten	<i>mīn</i>
oak	Eiche	<i>ōuk</i>
no	nein	<i>nōu</i>
mistake	Fehler	<i>mistēk</i>
will you tell me	wollen Sie mir sagen	<i>vilju te:tmi</i>
how it is spelt	wie es buch=stabiert wird	<i>spelt</i>
how is it spelt?	wie wird es buchstabiert?	
it is spelt	es wird buch=stabiert	
to spell	buchstabieren	<i>spet</i>
must	muß, muß	<i>most</i>
distinctly	deutlich	<i>distinktlī</i>
<i>adv.</i>		
double	doppelt	<i>doblt</i>
written	geschrieben	<i>ritm</i>
what do you call?	wie nennst du?	<i>kōt</i>
	wie nennt man?	
vowel	Vokal	<i>vāu·t</i>
diphthong	Doppellaut	<i>di'pθoŋ</i>
older	älter	<i>ōuldər</i>
oldest	älteste	<i>ōuldest</i>
form	Form	<i>fōrm</i>
which	welcher, =e, =es	<i>hvilš</i>
to know	wissen, kennen	<i>nōu</i>
Plautus	(254—184)	<i>plōtus</i>
writer	Schriftsteller	<i>rāitər</i>
to write	schreiben	<i>rāit</i>
to read	lesen	<i>rīd</i>
(I) thank you	ich danke Ihnen	<i>pe'nk ju</i>
why	warum	<i>hāi</i>
didn't you	schlugst du nicht	<i>didntju</i>
look out	nach?	<i>luk aūt</i>
did you	tatest du	<i>did ju</i>
not ~	nicht ~?	<i>nōt</i>
to look out	nachschlagen	<i>luk aūt</i>
dictionary	Wörterbuch	<i>di'kšnəri</i>

mine	meines, das	<i>main</i>
	meinige	
is getting	wird gerade	<i>getiŋ</i>
bound	eingebunden	<i>bāund</i>
in Latin	auf lateinisch	
in German	auf deutsch	
the Latin	das Lateinische	
the German	das Deutsche	
some	einiger, e, es	<i>som</i>
over	vorüber, zu Ende	<i>ōuvər</i>
after <i>prep.</i>	nach	
after <i>conj.</i>	nachdem	
has gone	ist gegangen	<i>hæz gən</i>
he goes	er geht	<i>hi gōuz</i>
to go out	herausgehen	<i>gōu aūt</i>
pen	Feder	<i>pen</i>
pencil	Bleistift	<i>pensit</i>
carefully <i>adv.</i>	sorgsam	<i>kērfuli</i>
to shut	zumachen, schließen	<i>šot</i>
to leave	verlassen	<i>lv</i>
to get ready	(bereit werden)	
for	sich fertig machen zu	
Chapel	Andacht in der	<i>tšæ'pt</i>
	Schulkapelle	
breakfast	erstes Frühstück	<i>bre'kfəst</i>
pupil	Schüler	<i>pupit</i>
to answer	(be)antworten	
him	ihn, ihm	
James's desk	Jakobs Pult	<i>džeimziz¹⁾</i>
James	Jakob	<i>džeimz</i>
masculine	männlich	<i>mæ'skulin</i>
feminine	weiblich	<i>fem'inin</i>
neuter	sächlich	<i>njūtər</i>
affirmative	bejahend	<i>af'irmativ</i>
negative	verneinend	<i>ne'gativ</i>
interrogative	fragend	<i>int'rrogativ</i>
verb	Zeitwort	<i>vərb</i>
conversation	Unterhaltung	<i>kənvə'se:ʃn</i>
section	Paragraf	<i>sekšn</i>
never	niemals	<i>nevər</i>

¹⁾ Auch die Genitivendung erweitert sich in der Aussprache nach einem Zischlaute (7, 4—7) zur vollen Silbe *iz* (beim Genitiv einfach 's geschrieben), vgl. Voc. S. 3, Anm. 1.

SKETCH III.

third	dritter, e, es	<i>pōrd</i>
dining-hall	Esssaal	<i>dāniŋ hōt</i>
Sidgwick	Eigennamen	<i>sidžwīk</i>
head monitor	Ober-Ermah- ner ¹⁾	<i>he'dmōn'itər</i>
head	Haupt, Kopf	<i>hed</i>
who rel.	welcher, e, es	<i>hū</i>
to belong to	gehören	<i>bilon</i>
sixth	sechst	<i>siksp</i>
says	(er) sagt	<i>sēz</i>
grace	das Dank-, Tischgebet	<i>grēs</i>
no adj.	keiner, e, es	<i>nōu</i>
roll	Semmel	<i>roul</i>
whose interr.	weisen	<i>hūz</i>
turn	der Turnus, Umgang	<i>tōrn</i>
it's your turn	die Reihe ist an dir, du bist dran	<i>its jūr tōrn</i>
to turn	wenden, drehen	
to fetch	holen	<i>fetš</i>
this morning	heute morgen	<i>dis mōrniŋ</i>
yours	deiner, der, deinige	<i>jūrz</i>
isn't it = is it not?	ist es nicht?	<i>iz'nt</i>
don't be = do not be	sei nicht	<i>dōunt</i> <i>dū not</i>
to bring	bringen	<i>brin</i>
soft	weich	<i>soft</i>
soft ones	weiche	
but	sondern	
nice and crisp	hübsch knus- perig	<i>nā's, krisp</i>
Davies	Eigennamen	<i>dēvīs</i>
would you	würdest du etwa	<i>žudū</i>
to mind	es übel nehmen	<i>mā'nd</i>
would you mind pass- ing	nimm es mir nicht übel, wenn ich dich bitte, herzu- reichen	

down	herunter	<i>dāun</i>
to prep.	zu	<i>tu, tō</i>
table	Tisch	<i>tēbt</i>
to pass	herüberreichen, herlangen	<i>pās</i>
he passes	er langt her	<i>hē pāsiz</i>
me	mir	<i>mī</i>
porridge	Hafermehlbrei	<i>pōridž</i>
too	zu	<i>tū</i>
hot	heiß	<i>hōt</i>
you haven't	Sie haben mir	<i>gi'vn</i>
given me	kein Fleisch	<i>en' mit</i>
any meat	gegeben	
any	irgend welcher, etwas	<i>en'</i>
fair	recht und billig	<i>fēr</i>
which interr.	welcher von beiden	<i>hūitš</i>
to-day	heute	<i>tōdēi</i>
cold	kalt	<i>kōultd</i>
mutton	Lammfleisch	<i>mōtn</i>
or	oder	<i>ōr</i>
roast	gebraten	<i>rōust</i>
beef	Rindfleisch	<i>bif</i>
give me	geben Sie mir	<i>gi'vmī</i>
clean	rein	<i>klīn</i>
knife	Messer	<i>nā'f</i>
fork	Gabel	<i>fōrk</i>
those which	diejenigen, welche	<i>dōuz</i>
you gave	Sie gaben	<i>gēiv</i>
dirty	schmutzig	<i>dērti'vnz</i>
take	nimm	<i>tēk</i>
them	sie	<i>dem</i>
Saunders	Eigennamen	<i>sōndərz</i>
if you are	wenn (falls) du	<i>ifjuār</i>
going	gehst	<i>gōwiŋ</i>
cupboard	Schrank	<i>kūbōrd</i>
might	möchte(st)	<i>mā't</i>
to get	verschaffen, her- besorgen	<i>get</i>
jam	Mus ¹⁾	<i>džæm</i>
there's not	es ist nicht, es gibt nicht	<i>dērz not</i>

¹⁾ Vgl. the head boy of the school, the top-boy of a class.

²⁾ In Zucker eingekochte Obstkonserven; besonders beliebt sind Erdbeer-jam, Aprikosen-, schwarze Johannisbeer- und Brombeer-jam.

much	viel	<i>mtš</i>
pot	Topf	<i>pot</i>
because	weil	<i>bt kōz</i>
it got spilt	es wurde um- geworfen	<i>spitt</i>
to spill	verschütten	<i>spit</i>
some	etwas, einiges	<i>svm</i>
our	unser	<i>āwɐ</i>
marmalade	Apfelsinen= (Gelee ¹⁾)	<i>mārməlɛd</i>
hi	heba!	<i>hāi</i>
bread	Brot	<i>bred</i>
to-morrow	morgen	<i>tmo'ro</i>
merit ²⁾	Verdienst	<i>me'rt</i>
the holiday	der Feiertag	<i>ho'lidɛ</i>
some	einige	
us	uns	<i>vs</i>
is going to	will	<i>izgōw'iq tu</i>
Evans	Eigenname	<i>evnz</i>
to town	nach der Stadt, <i>to tāun</i> in die Stadt	
for prep.	für	<i>fɔr</i>
whole	ganz	<i>hōut</i>
day	Tag	<i>dɛi</i>
a half-holi- day	einen halben Tag frei	<i>hā'fhol'dɛ</i>
this time	diesmal	
poor	arm	<i>pāw</i>
very	sehr	<i>ve'rɪ</i>
I am sorry	es tut mir leid	<i>ā ɛm sɔ'ri</i>
sorry	traurig	
you had	du hattest	<i>həd</i>
such	solch	<i>sutš</i>
bad	schlecht	<i>bəd</i>
luck	Glück	<i>lwk</i>
let us ask	laß uns fragen	<i>let vs ask</i>
if	ob	
you may	magst, darfst	<i>mɛi</i>
to come	mit herunter= kommen	<i>kɔm dāun</i>
down		
station	Bahnhof	<i>stɛʃn</i>

to see us off	uns abfahren	<i>sɪ'vɪs ɔ'f</i>
	zu sehen (uns bis zu unser Abfahrt zu begleiten)	
he would	würde	
to ask	fragen	<i>ask</i>
leave	Erlaubnis	<i>lv</i>
quarter of an hour	Viertelstunde	<i>kʷɔrtɐ vɔndə'u'r</i>
an hour	eine Stunde	<i>āu'r</i>
I am sure	sicherlich	<i>ʃāw</i>
sure	sicher, gewiß	
silence	Stillschweigen, Ruhe	<i>sā'lɪns</i>
said	gesagt	<i>sɛd</i>
singular	Singular	<i>si ŋgju'lɐ</i>
plural	Plural	<i>plu'rɪl</i>
number	Zahl	<i>nɔmbɐ</i>
case	Fall	<i>kɛis</i>
declension	Declination	<i>dɪklenʃn</i>
nominative	Nominativ	<i>nɔ'mɪnətɪv</i>
genitive	Genitiv	<i>dʒɛ'nɪtɪv</i>
dative	Dativ	<i>dɛɪtɪv</i>
accusative	Akkusativ	<i>akju'zɪtɪv</i>
penny	engl. Pfennig	<i>pɛni</i>
subject	Subjekt	<i>sɔbdʒɛkt</i>
predicate	Prädikat	<i>pre'dɪkət</i>
object	Objekt	<i>ɔ'bdʒɛkt</i>
to introduce	einführen	<i>ɪntrɔ'dʌs</i>
to want	haben wollen, wünschen	<i>wɔnt</i>
to re-trans- late	retrovvertieren	<i>rɪ'translɛt</i>
to precede	vorhergehen	<i>prɛsɪd</i>
to pronounce	ausprechen	<i>prɔnəʊns</i>
pronuncia- tion	Aussprache	<i>prɔnɔnsɪ'ɛʃn</i>
dictation	Diktat	<i>dɪkteɪʃn</i>
a fair copy	Reinschrift, Ab- schrift	<i>fɛər kɔpɪ</i>

¹⁾ Aus dem Fleisch und den Schalen der Apfelsinen; also nicht, was wir im Deutschen Marmelade nennen (= Kirichen, Johannis- und Stachelbeeren, zuweilen auch noch Himbeeren, zusammen eingekocht).

²⁾ the Merit-Half: die Schüler mit dem Prädikat 'merit' haben ihren halben Tag frei.

SKETCH IV.

fourth	vierter	<i>fōrþ</i>
part	Teil	<i>pārt</i>
trip	Ausflug, Partie	<i>trip</i>
to take a trip	einen Ausflug machen	
old	alt	<i>ōld</i>
new	neu	<i>nū</i>
about <i>adv.</i>	ungefähr	<i>ābāut</i>
thirty-five	fünfunddreißig	<i>þōrti fāiv</i>
mile ¹⁾	Meile	<i>māil</i>
south	Süd	<i>sāup</i>
western	westlich	<i>vēstern</i>
railway	Eisenbahn	<i>rēilvē</i>
the English	die Engländer	
to be fond of	gern haben	<i>fōnd</i>
abbreviation	Abkürzung	<i>ābrivēi'sh</i>
county ²⁾	Grafschaft	<i>kāunti</i>
council	Rat(sversammlung)	<i>kāunsi</i>
good-bye	adieu, lebe wohl	<i>gudbāi</i>
ticket	Fahrtkarte	<i>tīkēt</i>
to cost, cost,	kosten	<i>kōst</i>
cost		
shilling ³⁾	Schilling	<i>šilīŋ</i>
twopence	zwei pence	<i>tū'pens</i>
penny	(8 1/3 Pfennig)	<i>pe'nī</i>
halfpenny	ein halber penny	<i>hē'pē'nī</i>
class	Klasse	<i>klās</i>
return	hin und zurück	<i>rētōrn</i>
return ticket	Rückfahrtkarte	
got	erhalten	<i>gōt</i>
train	Eisenbahnzug	<i>trēin</i>
to get into a carriage	einsteigen	<i>intu</i>

carriage	Wagen	<i>kæ'ridʒ</i>
to get to	gelangen nach	
shall we	werden wir	<i>šæt</i>
have to	müssen?	
to change	wechseln, umsteigen	<i>tšēindʒ</i>
change	Wechsel	
straight	gerade durch	<i>strēit þrū</i>
through		
Waterloo	Endbahnhof in London	<i>vētōrlu</i>
without	ohne	<i>vēdāut</i>
then	dann	<i>ðen</i>
to cross	hinübergehen über	<i>kros</i>
bridge	Brücke	<i>bridʒ</i>
to walk	(zu Fuß) gehen	<i>vēk</i>
a walk	Spaziergang	
to take a walk	spazieren gehen	
down	hinab, hinunter	
to prep.	nach	
Charing Cross ⁴⁾	Endbahnhof in London	<i>tšēriŋkros</i>
Vauxhall	Bahnstation	<i>vōks hōt</i>
only	nur	<i>ōunli</i>
one more	noch eine	<i>ōv'n mōr</i>
more	mehr	
to hear,	hören	<i>hēr, hōrd</i>
heard, heard		
man	Mann	<i>mæn</i>
to call out	(aus)rufen	<i>kōl āut</i>
by	bei, durch, (über)	<i>bāi</i>
strand	Strand	<i>strænd</i>
the Strand	der Strand ⁵⁾	
funny	komisch, spaßhaft	<i>fō'nī</i>

¹⁾ Eine englische mile = etwa 1,6 Kilometer

²⁾ the London County Council: die oberste Magistratsbehörde Londons; Großlondon bildet eine Grafschaft.

³⁾ a shilling (1,02 Mark) has twelve (12, *tvētv*) pence.

⁴⁾ Eigentlich das Kreuz, das 1291 Edward I. in der Nähe von dem Dorfe Charing an der Stelle errichten ließ, an welcher der Sarg seiner Gemahlin Eleanor bei seiner Überführung nach der Westminster-Abtei zum letztenmal niedergelegt war. Ein anderes dieser Kreuze stand früher bei dem jetzigen Bahnhof King's Cross (cross Kreuz, to cross kreuzen). — In Charing Cross, King's Cross, Waterloo Bridge, London Bridge ruht der Hauptton auf dem Endworte.

⁵⁾ In früher Zeit eine an der Themse entlang führende Uferstraße, jetzt eine auf beiden Seiten bebaut, große Verkehrsstraße.

river	Fluß	<i>ri'vər</i>
to look	aussehen	<i>luk</i>
tide	Gezeiten (Ebbe und Flut)	<i>tāid</i>
the tide out	die Ebbe	<i>tāid aʊt</i>
ship	Schiff	<i>ʃip</i>
ugly	häßlich	<i>ngli</i>
barges	Leichter/schiffe	<i>bārdʒiz</i>
barge	Leichter	<i>bārdʒ</i>
to stick, stuck, stuck	stecken	<i>stik, stɒk</i>
fast	fest	<i>fāst</i>
mud	Schlamm	<i>mʌd</i>
quite <i>adv.</i>	ganz	<i>kū'ait</i>
out of	(heraus) aus	<i>aʊt ɒv</i>
water	Wasser	<i>ŋ'wɔ:tər</i>
year	Jahr	<i>jɪər</i>
ago	(jezt) vor	<i>ə'gəʊ</i>
went	ging, -en	<i>ŋ'ent</i>
that	jener	<i>ðæt</i>
pier	Landungsbrücke, Anlege-damm	<i>pɪər</i>
Greenwich steamboat ¹⁾	Greenwich-Dampfschiff	<i>grɪ'nɪdʒ stɪ'mbəʊt</i>
steam	Dampf	
boat	Boot	
there were	es waren, es gab	<i>ðeər ʋ'ɛər</i>
people	Leute	<i>pɪpəl</i>
we could	wir konnten	<i>kʊd</i>
I could	ich konnte	<i>kʊd</i>
I can	ich kann	<i>kæn</i>
to believe	glauben	<i>blɪv</i>
to run	laufen	<i>rʌn</i>
as <i>conj.</i>	da, weil	<i>æz</i>
to pay	1. bezahlen 2. sich bezahlt machen	<i>peɪ</i>
did	tat	<i>dɪd</i>
anybody	irgendeiner	<i>e'nɪbədɪ</i>
fine	schön	<i>faɪn</i>

building	Gebäude	<i>bi'ldɪŋ</i>
over	über, drüber	<i>əʊvər</i>
City	die Altstadt	<i>sɪ'ti</i>
dome	Kuppel	<i>dəʊm</i>
St. Paul's	Sankt Pauli,	<i>sɪnpəlz</i>
= St. Paul's	der Dom des	<i>kæpɪ'drəl</i>
Cathedral	heil. Paulus	
saint	heilig	<i>sēɪnt</i>
was copied	wurde nachge-	<i>ʋəz kəpɪd</i>
	bildet	
to copy	kopieren	
Peter	Petrus	<i>pɪtər</i>
at	in, zu	<i>æt</i>
Rome	Rom	<i>rəʊm</i>
far	weit	<i>fɑr</i>
better than	besser als	<i>betər ðæn</i>
closer	dichter, näher	<i>kləʊsər</i>
close	dicht, nahe	<i>kləʊs</i>
to <i>adv.</i>	dazu, daran	
it is a pity	es ist schade	<i>pɪtɪ</i>
pity	Mitleid	
shut in	eingeschlossen	<i>ʃʊtɪn</i>
to shut	schließen	<i>ʃʊt</i>
warehouses	Lagerhäuser, Speicher	<i>ŋ'ɛərhaʊ-zɪz</i>
house	Haus	<i>haʊs</i>
shop	Laden	<i>ʃɒp</i>
on the left	links, zur Linken	<i>left</i>
Ben ²⁾ = Benjamin	Benjamin	<i>be'nɪdʒə'mɪn</i>
clock	Turmuhre	<i>klɒk</i>
tower	Turm	<i>tāʊər</i>
Somerset	Somerset-Haus	<i>səmərset</i>
House ³⁾		
to turn	sich wenden, ab-	<i>tɜ:n</i>
	biegen	
to the left	nach links	
to the right	nach rechts	<i>rāɪt</i>
on the right	rechts, auf der rechten Seite	

¹⁾ an L. C. C. boat, lies: *ən et sɪ sɪ bəʊt*, = a London County Council boat ein in städtischem Betriebe fahrender Dampfer, ein Londoner Stadtdampfer.

²⁾ Big Ben ist der Name der großen, 13 Tonnen wiegenden Glocke, so genannt nach Sir Benjamin Hall, dem obersten Beamten der Bauleitung im Jahre 1840.

³⁾ Ein jetzt zu Bureauz eingerichtetes Staatsgebäude, früher Palast des Herzogs von Somerset.

presently	jetzt	<i>pre'zntli</i>
we shall	wir werden vor-	<i>šæt</i>
pass	beikommen an	
hotel	Gasthaus	<i>hɒtəl</i>
Cecil	männl. Vor-	<i>sɛ'sɪl</i>
	name	
largest	größt	<i>lɑ:dʒɪst</i>
large	groß	<i>lɑ:dʒ</i>
most	am meist	<i>məʊst</i>
frequented	besucht	<i>fri:kwe'ntɪd</i>
world	Welt	<i>vɜ:ld</i>
other	ander	<i>ʌðər</i>
another	ein anderer	<i>ənə'ðər</i>
side	Seite	<i>sɑɪd</i>
its poss.	sein	<i>ɪts</i>
window	Fenster	<i>ʍɪndo</i>
to overlook	überblicken	<i>əvər'lʊk</i>
quiet	ruhig	<i>kwaɪət</i>
garden	Garten	<i>gɑ:dn</i>
embankment	Uferstraße,	<i>embæ'ŋk-</i>
	Staden	<i>mɪnt</i>
to wait for	warten auf	
to get on	weiterfahren	
to use	benützen, an-	<i>jʊz</i>
	wenden	
place	Ort	<i>pleɪs</i>
time	Zeit	<i>tɑɪm</i>
cause	Ursache, Grund	<i>kɔ:z</i>
manner	Art und Weise	<i>mæ'nər</i>

SKETCH V.

fifth	fünft	<i>fɪfθ</i>
Hyde Park ¹⁾	Hyde Park	<i>haɪd pɑ:k</i>
South Ken-	Stadtteil Lon-	<i>səʊθ ke'n-</i>
sington	don	<i>ɪŋtn</i>
museum	Museum	<i>mju:zɪəm</i>
terminus	Kopfstation	<i>tɜ'mɪnəs</i>
which rel.	welcher	

people	Leute	<i>pi:pəl</i>
to arrive	ankommen	<i>ə'raɪv</i>
to travel	reisen	<i>træ'vəl</i>
France	Frankreich	<i>fra:ns</i>
motor	Kraftwagen	<i>məʊtər</i>
bus = omni-	Omnibus	<i>bʊs</i>
bus		<i>ɔ'mnɪbʊs</i>
that red one	jener rote	<i>ðæt re'dʌn</i>
red	rot	<i>red</i>
ours	unserer, der	<i>əʊəz</i>
	unserige	
I beg your	ich bitte Sie um	<i>aɪ beg jʊər</i>
pardon	Verzeihung	<i>pɑ:dn</i>
to think	denken	<i>θɪŋk</i>
I am wrong	ich habe unrecht	<i>rɒŋ</i>
I am right	ich habe recht	<i>raɪt</i>
Victoria-	Bahnhof in	
Station	London SW	
horse	Pferd	<i>hɔ:s</i>
white	weiß	<i>hwaɪt</i>
will do	genügt auch,	<i>dʌ</i>
	geht auch	
to get up	hinaufsteigen	
outside	außen	<i>əʊtsaɪd</i>
inside	innen	<i>ɪnsaɪd</i>
driver	Fahrer, Kutscher	<i>draɪvər</i>
to start	abfahren	<i>stɑ:t</i>
are you		
waiting?	warten Sie?	<i>weɪtɪŋ</i>
till conj.	bis	<i>tɪl</i>
Nelson ²⁾	Nelson	<i>nel'sn</i>
down	hernieder,	
	hinunter	
column	Säule	<i>kɒləm</i>
worst	schlimmst	<i>vɜ:st</i>
you	euch	<i>jʊ</i>
young	jung	<i>jʌŋ</i>
gent ³⁾	der seine Herr	<i>dʒent</i>

¹⁾ Ein großes freies Feld in London, das teilweise mit Parkanlagen, Baumgängen, Blumenbeeten, Reitwegen und Fahrstraßen (nicht für Lastwagen) angelegt ist.

²⁾ Der Sieger in der Seeschlacht bei Trafalgar (1805), in der die vereinigte französische und spanische Flotte von den Engländern geschlagen wurde. Sein Denkmal, eine 145' hohe Säule mit dem Standbilde Nelsons, steht auf dem Trafalgar-Platz. (Trafalgar Square hat den Hauptton auf dem Worte Square; square heißt eigentlich „Biereck“).

³⁾ Vertrauliche (mehr in den niederen Volksschichten übliche) Abkürzung von gentleman.

Sydenham	Ost-Vorort von London	<i>si'dnəm</i>
the Great Exhibition	die große Ausstellung	<i>grēit eks'bi'shən</i>
hundred and fifty	hundert fünfzig	<i>hə'ndrəd fifti</i>
inscription	Aufschrift	<i>inskri'pʃn</i>
her <i>poss.</i>	ihr	<i>hər</i>
people	Volk, Leute	<i>pīpl</i>
Prince-Consort	Prinzgemahl	<i>prins kə'nsɔrt</i>
as	als	<i>æz</i>
tribute	Zoll	<i>tri'būt</i>
gratitude	Dank	<i>græ'tɪtʊd</i>
life	Leben	<i>laɪf</i>
devoted	geweiht	<i>də'vəʊtɪd</i>
public	öffentlich	<i>pʌ'blik</i>
good	Wohl; gut	<i>gʊd</i>
further	weiter	<i>fərðər</i>
behind	hinter	<i>bɪ'hænd</i>
those <i>pl.</i>	jene	<i>ðəʊz</i>
tree	Baum	<i>tri</i>
late	leththin verstorben	<i>leɪt</i>
king	König	<i>kɪŋ</i>
Edward VII.	Éduard VII.	<i>ɛ'dʊəd də se'venθ</i>
was born	wurde geboren	<i>bɔrn</i>
a little	etwas, ein wenig	<i>lɪt</i>
later	später	<i>leɪtər</i>
when <i>conj.</i>	als	<i>hæn</i>
about to	im Begriff zu	<i>ə'baut</i>
now then	nun denn	
this way	hier entlang	
by <i>prep.</i>	bei, mit	
the Under-ground	die unterirdische Eisenbahn	<i>v'ndr-graund</i>
lunch	Mittagsfrühstück	<i>lʌntʃ</i>
to spend, spent, spent	(verspenden), zubringen	<i>spend, spent</i>
in looking over	damit, daß wir ansehen	<i>lu'kɪŋ ðə'ver</i>

to look over	ansehen, durchmustern	
wit	Spaßmacher	<i>uɪt</i>
to get	werden	
high	hoch	<i>haɪ</i>
to return	zurückkehren	<i>rɪ'tɜrn</i>
imperative	Befehlsform	<i>ɪmpə'reɪtɪv</i>
mood	Modus	<i>mud</i>
perfect	Perfekt	<i>pə'r'fekt</i>
pluperfect	Plusquamperfekt	<i>plu'pərfekt</i>
past	vergangen	<i>pāst</i>
past tense	Imperfekt	
participle	Partizip	<i>pɑr'tɪsɪp</i>
strong	stark	<i>strɔŋ</i>
weak	schwach	<i>uɪk</i>
principal	Stammzeiten	<i>prɪnsɪpəl</i>
parts		
irregular	unregelmäßig	<i>ɪ're'gʊlə</i>
auxiliary	Hilfs-	<i>ə'gzi'ləri</i>
to pronounce	ausprechen	<i>prə'nəʊns</i>
pronunciation	Aussprache	<i>prə'nəʊnsi'eɪ'shən</i>
ending	Endung	<i>endɪŋ</i>
sound	Laut	<i>səʊnd</i>
voiceless	stimmlos	<i>vɔɪsles</i>
voiced	stimmhaft	<i>vɔɪst</i>
gap	Lücke	<i>gæp</i>
blank	freie Stelle	<i>blæŋk</i>
dash	Gedankenstrich	<i>dæʃ</i>
left	übrig gelassen	<i>leɪft</i>
to fill in	ausfüllen	<i>fil in</i>
to complete	ergänzen	<i>kəmplit</i>

SKETCH VI.

examination	Prüfung	<i>egzæ'mɪn'eɪ'shən</i>
over	vorüber, vorbei	
another	noch ein	
paper	(Prüfungs-) Arbeit	
all	alles	
jolly <i>adv.</i>	tüchtig, über und über	
work	Werkt, Arbeit	

last	leht	<i>läst</i>
haven't we	haben wir	<i>hæ'vnt</i>
= have we	nicht?	<i>ʔi</i>
not?		
to think;	denken	<i>þɪŋk,</i>
thought,		<i>þɔt</i>
thought		
I should	ich hätte denken	
have	folgen (= ich	
thought	solle meinen)	
I should	ich sollte	<i>ʃud</i>
might	möchte, mochte	<i>māit</i>
you might	du hättest sagen	
have said	können	
these pl.	diese	<i>diz</i>
you mean	du meinst, willst	
	sagen	
why	1. warum?	<i>hʔāi</i>
	2. ja wirklich	
we have	wir sind aus-	<i>ʔi hæv bin</i>
been out	gewesen	<i>āwt</i>
hardly	kaum	<i>hårdli</i>
since	seit	<i>sins</i>
to remember	sich erinnern,	<i>r'me'mbər</i>
	noch wissen	
to meet, met,	entgegengehen	<i>mīt, met</i>
met		
to miss	verfehlen	<i>mis</i>
that day	an jenem Tage (<i>accus.</i>)	
barely	mit knapper Not	<i>bæ'rli</i>
to get	kommen, ge-	
	langen	
home	nach Hause	<i>hōum</i>
evening	Abend	<i>ɪ'vniŋ</i>
prayer	Gebet	<i>prɛ'ər</i>
Evening	Abendandacht	
Prayers		
I do [remem-	ich tue (es noch	
ber it]	sehr wohl	
	wissen)	

escape	das Entkommen	<i>eskəip</i>
narrow	eng, knapp	<i>næ'ro</i>
we had a	mit genauer	
narrow	Not ent-	
escape	schlüpfen	
from	wir dem	
getting	Eingestedt-	<i>kept i'n</i>
kept in	werden, dem	
	Nachhagen	
to hope	hoffen	<i>hōʊp</i>
exam ²⁾	(examination)	<i>ɛgzæm</i>
I badly want	ich muß unbe-	<i>bædli</i>
to	dingt	
badly adv.	schlecht, schlimm	
senior	älter	<i>sɪ'nɪər</i>
scholarship	Stipendium ¹⁾	<i>skɔ'lərʃɪp</i>
to get	erhalten, er-	
	langen	
next	nächst	<i>nekst</i>
term ³⁾	Termin, Tertial	<i>tɜrm</i>
Prose	Prosastück	<i>prəʊz</i>
	(Exzerptium)	
though	obgleich	<i>dəu</i>
unusually	ungewöhnlich	<i>ʊnʤu'ʒuəli</i>
difficult	schwer, schwie-	<i>dɪ'fɪkəlt</i>
	rig	
piece	Stück	<i>pɪs</i>
still adv.	immerhin, je-	
	doch	
probably adv.	wahrscheinlich	<i>prə'bəbli</i>
equally adv.	gleichmäßig	<i>ɪ'kʊəli</i>
few	wenige	<i>fju</i>
worse than	schlechter als	<i>ʔʊrs</i>
unseen	ungesehen ⁴⁾	<i>ʊ'nsi'n</i>
it is not	es nützt nicht	
much good	viel	
to worry	sich beun-	<i>ʔʊ'ri</i>
	ruhigen, sich	
	Sorgemachen	

¹⁾ Geld-Unterstützung für Schüler (oder Studenten) der älteren Jahrgänge, die nur durch großen Fleiß, hervorragende Leistungen und gutes Verhalten erlangt wird.

²⁾ Exam ist ein kurzer Schülerausdruck für Examination.

³⁾ The English school-year has three terms.

⁴⁾ an unseen paper (oder an unseen) = schriftliche Extempore-Übersetzungsaufgabe einer noch nicht gelesenen, dem Schüler völlig unbekannten Stelle eines fremden Autors.

biscuit	Knusperling ¹⁾	<i>biskit</i>
small	klein	<i>smōt</i>
stone	Stein	<i>stōun</i>
bottle	Flasche	<i>bott</i>
stone bottle	irdene Krufe	<i>stōnbott</i>
gingerbeer	Jugwer- Brauselimono- nade ²⁾	<i>dži'ndžer bīr</i>
thirsty	durstig	<i>pīrsti</i>
shall you come	wirst du kom- men?	<i>šæt zu kōm</i>
afterwards <i>adv.</i>	nachher	<i>āstērūrdz</i>
box	Koffer, Kiste, Schachtel	<i>boks</i>
we shan't = shall not	werden nicht	<i>šānt =</i> <i>šātnot</i>
to hurry	sich abhasten	<i>hōri</i>
early	früh	<i>ērlī</i>
taxi	Tagameter ³⁾	<i>tæ ksī</i>
cab	Droschke	<i>kæb</i>
to take	nehmen	
to depend upon	abhängen von	<i>dēpend vō'n</i>
money	Geld	<i>mōnē</i>
how much	wieviel	<i>mōtš</i>
how many	wie viele	<i>meni</i>
left	noch (übrig ge- blieben)	
precious	köstlich ⁴⁾	<i>prešs</i>
little	wenig	<i>litt</i>
to suppose	vermuten	<i>sōpōuz</i>
not either . .	auch nicht	<i>not . . āidēr</i>
pronoun	Fürwort	<i>prōw'nāun</i>
personal	persönlich	<i>pīr'snōt</i>
possessive	besitzanzeigend	<i>pōze'siv</i>
demonstra- tive	hinzeigend	<i>dēmō'nstratīv</i>

determina- tive	bestimmend	<i>dētēr'minatīv</i>
interroga- tive	fragend	<i>intērrogatīv</i>
relative	zurückweisend	<i>relatīv</i>
indefinite	unbestimmt	<i>indēfīnīt</i>
to make, made, made	machen	<i>mōk,</i> <i>mōid</i>
to add	hinzufügen	<i>ād</i>
or	oder	<i>ōr</i>
each	jeder, e, es; e	<i>itš</i>
to change	wechseln, ändern	<i>tšēindž</i>
instead of	anstatt	<i>īnstēd v</i>
to put, put, put	setzen, legen, stellen	<i>put</i>
to put in	einsetzen	<i>put'īn</i>
to under- stand	1. verstehen 2. sich hinzu- denken, er- gänzen	<i>undērstæ'nd</i>

SKETCH VII.

the Great Northern Railway	die große Nord- bahn	<i>nōrdār'n</i>
King's Cross ⁵⁾	Endbahnhof in London	<i>kīnz krō's</i>
cross	Kreuz	
Barnet	Ort in Hert- fordshire	<i>bārnet</i>
awfully <i>adv.</i>	schauderhaft, ungeheuer	<i>āfulī</i>
I am glad you're co- ming to our place	es freut mich, du kommst mit zu uns	<i>āwplēis</i>
place	Platz, Wohnsitz	

¹⁾ In Norddeutschland oft — fälschlich — 'Cafes' genannt. Im Englischen ist cake (*kēik*) = 'Kuchen'.

²⁾ Sehr erfrischend, alkoholfrei, — aber kein Bier im deutschen Sinne.

³⁾ Die Londoner Tagameter sind Automobil-Droschken (mit Fahrpreisanzeiger).

⁴⁾ precious little: burschikoser Schülerausdruck = gewaltig (bandig) wenig.

⁵⁾ S. die Anmerkung (see the foot-note *fu'tnōt*) zu Charing Cross, Vocabulary (*vōkæbruləri*) p. 8.

to stay,	zu Besuch	<i>stēi</i>
stayed,	bleiben	
stayed		
of course	natürlich	<i>əkōrs</i>
I couldn't	ich könnte doch	
very well	nicht gut nach	
go home	Haufe reisen	
Australia	Australien	<i>ōstrē'liā</i>
rather	eher, vielmehr	<i>rādər</i>
off <i>adv.</i>	ab, weg, ent-	
	fernt	
too	allzu	<i>tū</i>
far	weit	<i>fār</i>
to get to	hangelangen	
father	Vater	<i>fādər</i>
mine	meiner, der	
	meinige	
your father	dein und mein	
and mine	Vater	
once	einst(mals)	<i>ȳvns</i>
school-chums	Schulkameraden	<i>skū'ltšvmz</i>
chum	Stubengenosse	<i>tšvm</i>
together	zusammen	<i>tge'dər</i>
to slacken	(nach)lassen,	<i>slækn</i>
	langamer	
	fahren ¹⁾	
nearly <i>adv.</i>	nahezu, beinahe	
to let, let, let	lassen	<i>let</i>
window	Fenster	<i>ȳindo</i>
to let down	herunterlassen	<i>let dāu'n</i>
uncle	Onkel	<i>vŋkt</i>
platform	Bahnsteig	<i>plæ'tfōrm</i>
much	viel, sehr	
excited	aufgeregt	<i>eksā'tid</i>
to open	aufmachen,	<i>ōpn</i>
	öffnen	
door	Tür	<i>dōr</i>
dad	lieb Väterchen	<i>dæd</i>
Warner	Familiennamen	<i>ȳōrnər</i>
major	Major	<i>mē'džər</i>
Mr. Vaughan	Eigennamen	<i>mīstər vōn</i>
there he is	da steht er	<i>dēri i'z</i>

rover	Herumstreifer,	<i>rōuvər</i>
	Strolch	
dog	Hund	<i>dɔg</i>
too	auch	
you'll enjoy	du wirst ange-	<i>ēndžōi'</i>
your holi-	nehme Ferien	
days	haben	
to enjoy	genießen, Ge-	
	nuß haben	
	von	
with us	bei uns	<i>ȳi'dvz</i>
I should like	ich möchte gern	
to feel, felt,	sich fühlen	
felt		
happy	glücklich	<i>hæpɪ</i>
I'm sure	ganz gewiß	<i>ʃʊər</i>
I shall	werd' ich das	
sure	sicher, gewiß	
one can't	das geht gar	<i>kānt</i>
help it	nicht anders	<i>he'lpit</i>
	(man kann	
	es nicht ver-	
	hindern)	
there's not a	es gibt keinen	<i>not</i>
beautiful	schön	<i>bɪu'tɪfʊl</i>
more than	mehr als	<i>mōr dæn</i>
Greenhill-	Grüneberg-	<i>grɪnhɪl</i>
Park	Park	<i>pɑrk</i>
hill	Berg	<i>hɪl</i>
anywhere	irgendwo	<i>e'nɪhʊ̃ər</i>
short	kurz	<i>ʃɔrt</i>
to get in	hineintun,	<i>get i'n</i>
	hineinpacken	
all the lug-	das ganze Ge-	<i>lɒ'gɪdʒ</i>
gage	pack	
only	nur	<i>ōnli</i>
the most	das Notwen-	<i>mōst ne'</i>
necessary	digste	<i>sɜsərɪ</i>
most	meist	
Beesley	Familiennamen	<i>bizli</i>
the rest	das übrige	<i>rest</i>
light	leicht(-wiegend)	<i>laɪt</i>

¹⁾ Weil der Zug sogleich halten wird.

cart	zweirädriger Wagen, Karren	<i>kārt</i>
dinner	Hauptmahlzeit ¹⁾	<i>dīnər</i>
may I	darf ich	<i>mēi</i>
to drive,	fahren	<i>-āi-,</i>
drove,		<i>-ōu-,</i>
driven		<i>-ī-</i>
drive	Fahrt	<i>drāiv</i>
to get into	in Unglück ge-	<i>trəbt</i>
trouble	raten	
to stop	anhalten	
to get down	absteigen	
gate	Gartenpforte	<i>gēt</i>
wide	weit	<i>āid</i>
quick	schnell	<i>kūik</i>
you need not	du brauchst nicht zu	<i>nīd nət</i>
both	beide	<i>bōuþ</i>
girl	Mädchen	<i>gōrt</i>
mama	Mama	<i>māmā</i>
in front of	vor	<i>īn frənt</i>
porch	Türhalle	<i>pōrtš</i>
to wave	wedeln mit	<i>vēiv</i>
handkerchief	Taschentuch	<i>hæŋkərtšif</i>
future	Zuturum	<i>fūtšər</i>
conditional	Konditional	<i>kəndīšmət</i>

voice	Zustandsform	<i>vōis</i>
active voice	Tätigkeitsform	<i>æktiv</i>
passive	Leideform	<i>pæsiiv</i>
action	Tätigkeit	<i>ækšn</i>
to state	feststellen, an- geben	<i>stēt</i>
yesterday	gestern	<i>je'stərdēi</i>
to-morrow	morgen	<i>tə'mō'ro</i>
to work	arbeiten	
to be at work	bei der Arbeit sein	

SKETCH VIII.

letter	Brief	<i>lētər</i>
nineteen	neunzehn-	<i>həndrəd</i>
hundred	hundertneun	
and nine		
one thousand	tausendneun-	<i>pāuzənd</i>
nine hun-	hundertneun	
dred and		
nine		
dear	teuer, lieb	<i>dīər</i>
John	Jo hann	<i>džən</i>
to invite	einladen	<i>īnvā'it</i>
report	Zensur	<i>rəpōrt</i>
to send,	senden, schicken	<i>send,</i>
sent, sent		<i>sent</i>
great	groß	<i>grēt</i>

¹⁾ Man unterscheidet zwischen early dinner (1½—2 Uhr) und late dinner (gegen 7 Uhr). Vornehme und viele Geschäftsleute haben late dinner wochentags, aber early dinner Sonntags. Wer early dinner hat, nimmt abends ein supper. Wer late dinner hat, nimmt abends kein supper, hat aber mittags einen ganz leichten Imbiß, das lunch. Meist liegen die englischen Mahlzeiten (meals) folgendermaßen: 1. breakfast (vor 9 Uhr); — 2. early dinner oder lunch (1½ bis 2 Uhr); 3. supper oder late dinner (7—8 Uhr). Viele Leute — besonders Damen — haben als vierte Mahlzeit noch tea (gegen 5 Uhr). — Neben lunch besteht die vollere Form luncheon. In den Kolonien — besonders in the colonies of the East, or the Far-East — gebraucht man statt lunch meist das indische Wort tiffin. — Viele der Leute, die late dinner haben, legen dazu bessere Kleidung an — besonders solche, die auf dem Lande wohnen, auch wenn sie keine Gäste zu Besuch erwarten: they dress for dinner. Herren ziehen dazu den für schlanke Gestalten allerdings nicht unkleidsamen Frack (dress-coat) — oder weniger förmlich das zwanglose dinner jacket — mit leichten Lackschuhen (patent-leather shoes, dress-shoes) an. Außer zum evening-dress (Gesellschaftsanzug) wird der Frack in England nie getragen (also nie vor 6 Uhr abends), auch nicht bei zeremoniellen Zutrittsvisiten. Wünscht ein Gastgeber, daß seine Eingeladenen in einfacherer Kleidung erscheinen, so drückt er dies meist durch einfache Wendungen aus, wie No dress, please, — oder Please, don't dress. Die zum dinner geladenen Gäste erscheinen in England einige Minuten vor der Zeit, zu der sie gebeten sind.

joy	Freude	<i>džōi</i>
to try, tried, tried	versuchen	<i>trāi</i>
my very best	mein allerbestes	<i>veri</i>
very <i>adj.</i>	wahr, echt	
to beat, beat, beaten	schlagen	<i>bīt</i>
easy	leicht (ausführ- bar)	<i>i'z'i</i>
several	mehrere	<i>se'vrat</i>
better	besser	<i>bet'r</i>
rather	ziemlich	<i>rād'r</i>
clever	geschickt	<i>kle'vər</i>
language	Sprache	<i>læ'ŋgwidž</i>
top	erster	
geography	Erdfunde	<i>džio'grafi</i>
chiefly	hauptsächlich	<i>tš'i'fl'i</i>
British	britisch	<i>britiš</i>
colonies	Kolonien	<i>kə'ləniʒ</i>
colony	Kolonie	<i>kə'ləni</i>
to be fond of	eingegenommen sein von	<i>fənd</i>
I am fond of	ich lerne gern	
learning		
something	etwas	<i>sə'mp'ŋ</i>
event	Ereignis	<i>ivent</i>
at all events	auf alle Fälle	<i>ət'ɔl'vents</i>
both . . and	sowohl . . als auch	<i>bəuʃ</i>
I am sure to	ich bekomme	
get	sicherlich	
remove	Verlegung	<i>rə'muʋ</i>
to come out	gut durch-	<i>kəm aʊt</i>
high	kommen	<i>hāi</i>
Geometry	Geometrie	<i>džio'metri</i>
Exam	Prüfung	<i>egze'm</i>
as well	ebenfalls, auch	<i>əz'wel</i>
to promise	versprechen	<i>prə'mis</i>
real	wirklich, or= bentlich	<i>r'i:əl</i>
treat	Extra-Ver= gnügen ¹⁾	<i>trit</i>

to throw,	werfen	<i>prōu</i>
threw,		<i>-u-</i>
thrown		<i>-ū-</i>
fly ²⁾	fliege	<i>flāi</i>
trout	Forelle(n)	<i>trāut</i>
stream	fließendes Wasser, Bach, Flüßchen	<i>strīm</i>
from here	von hier	
the day	übermorgen	
after to- morrow		
the day be- fore yester- day	vorgestern	
cheap	billig, wohlfeil	<i>tšip</i>
excursion	Ausflug	<i>ekskūr'shən</i>
country	Land	<i>kəntri</i>
Shakespeare	(Dichter)	<i>šeikspēr</i>
Stratford	(Warwickshire)	<i>stræt'fərd</i>
Avon	Fluß	<i>əvən</i>
ruin	zerfallenes Bauwerk	<i>rūin</i>
Kenilworth	(Warwickshire)	<i>kə'niltūrp</i>
castle	Schloß	<i>kāst</i>
Paddington	Bahnhof in London W	<i>pæ'dɪŋtən</i>
Station		
about <i>prep.</i>	gegen	
sandwiches	Klappbrötchen	<i>sæ'ndwɪdʒiz,</i>
sandwich		<i>sæ'ndwɪdʒ</i>
Edith	Editha	<i>i'dɪʃ</i>
the eldest	die älteste	<i>eldest</i>
daughter	Tochter	<i>dəʊtər</i>
Richmond	Orte an der	<i>rɪ'tʃmənd</i>
Kew	Themse	<i>kū</i>
week end	Freitag bis Dienstag	<i>ʊk'end</i>
	früh	
Mrs. V.	Frau V.	<i>misiz vɪ.</i>
sister	Schwester	<i>sɪ'stər</i>
wonderful	prachtvoll	<i>ʊndər'fʊl</i>
hot	heiß	<i>hɒt</i>

¹⁾ Eigentlich das Traktieren, die Bewirtung, dann Hochgenuß usw.

²⁾ hier: eine künstliche Fliege zum Angeln.

hothouse	Treibhaus	hə'thəʊs
houses	Häuser	hauzɪz
palm	Palme	pām
ever	je, immer	e'və
ever so	so sehr, sehr	
many	viele	
feet	Füße	fɪt
foot	Fuß	fʊt
interesting	anziehend	ɪ'ntrɪstɪŋ
than (nach Komp.)	als	dæn
botanical	botanisch	bə'tænɪkəl
wood	Holz	wʊd
the Zoo =	der zoologische	zu
the Zoologi- cal Gardens	Garten	zəʊ- lə'dʒɪkəl
steamer	Dampfer	stɪmə
by steamer	mit dem Dampfer	
to take the train	mit der Eisen- bahn fahren	treɪn
Cambden	Stadtviertel in	kæmɪdən
Town	London NW	taʊn
north	Norden	nɔ:θ
hansom	zweirädriges Kabriolett	hænsəm
monkey	Affe	mʌŋki
lion	Löwe	laɪən
tiger	Tiger	taɪgə
bear	Bär	bɛə
black	schwarz	blæk
swan	Schwan	sɔ:n
foreign	ausländisch	fɔ:rɪn
geese	Gänse	ɡɪs
goose	Gans	ɡʊs
snake	Schlange	snɛk
anything	irgend etwas	ɛ'nɪθɪŋ
Miss	Fräulein	mɪs

Chambers	Familienname	tʃɛmbəz
shop	Verkaufsladen	ʃɒp
to shop	Einkäufe machen	
to leave	fortgehen	
the Bakerloo	eine unterir- dische Bahn	bɛkərlu
tube	(Londons ¹⁾)	tʊb
tube	Röhre ²⁾	
circus	runder Straßenplatz	sɜ:kəs
Robinson ³⁾	Name	rə'bɪnzən
to buy, bought, bought	kaufen	bʌɪ, bɒt
silk	Seide	sɪlk
blouse	Bluse	blauz
a couple	ein paar, einige	kʌpəl
dark	dunkel	dɑ:k
blue	blau	blu
tie	Kravatte	taɪ
meat	Fleisch	mi:t
tea ⁴⁾	Tea	ti
supper	Abendbrot	sʌpə
wet	feucht, naß	wet
indoors	im Hause, im Zimmer	ɪ'ndɔ:z
to play	spielen	pleɪ
game	Spiel	ɡeɪm
chess	Schach	tʃes
Aldershot ⁵⁾	(Hampshire)	ɔ:ldəʃɒt
to fly, flew, flown	fliegen	flaɪ u, ɔu
flying- machine	Flugmaschine, Flieger	mʌʃɪn
interested	interessiert	ɪ'ntrɪstɪd
aeroplane	Flugzeug	ɛ'rəpleɪn
airship	Luftschiff	ɛ'rʃɪp

¹⁾ Von Baker (bɛkə) Street unter der Themse bis Waterloo Station.

²⁾ So heißen in London die stark gewölbten Kanäle der unterirdischen elektrischen Bahnen.

³⁾ Peter Robinson's (ergänze shop Verkaufsladen): berühmtes großes Geschäft von Damenkleidern u. dergl. in Oxford Street.

⁴⁾ meat-tea kräftiges Vesperbrot, wobei es auch etwas Fleisch gibt.

⁵⁾ Großer Truppenübungsplatz mit Zeltlagern.

to meet,	treffen, be-	mit
met, met	gegennen	met
captain	Kapitän	kæpt'n
Wilson	Name	ũts'n
regiment	Regiment	re'dzimənt
Pretoria	Stadt	prɪt'ɔ'riä
Africa	Afrika	æ'frikä
Portsmouth	Hafenstadt	pɔ'r'tsmʊp
to allow	gestatten	ə'laʊ
to choose,	wählen	tʃʊz,
chose,		tʃʊz,
chosen		tʃʊzn
ourselves	wir selbst	ə'wɔ'se'lvz
novel	Roman	nɔ'vəl
westward	westwärts	vestwərd
ho	he! holla!	həʊ
Kingsley	(1819—1875)	kɪŋzəl
Wells	(1866— .)	velz
food	Nahrung	fud
god	Gott	gɒd
Wilkie	(1824—1889)	ũtki kɔ'liŋz
Collins		
woman	Frau	ũmən
heroes	Helden	hɪ'rəʊz
hero	Held	hɪ'ro
Froude	(1818—1894)	frud
Oceana	(Reisefoman)	ɔ'si:nä
Macaulay	(1800—1859)	məkəʊl
essay	Aufsatz, Ab-	e'se'i
	handlung	
besides	außerdem	bə'saɪdz
present	Geschenk	pre'znt
handsome	hübsch	hæ'nsəm
box of ma-	Reißzeug	mæ'p'mæ-
thematical		ti:kət i'n-
instruments		strumənts
to help	helfen	help
geometrical	geometrisch	dʒi:mē'tri:kət
drawing	Zeichnen	drɔ'ɪŋ
useful	nützlich	jũ'sfɪt
to try	Versuch machen	
Sandhurst ¹⁾	(Berkschire)	sæ'ndərst

summer	Sommer	sʊmər
silver	Silber	sɪlvər
watch	Taschenuhr	ʊtʃ
has . . given	hat . . geschenkt	
to him	befommen	
to break,	zerbrechen	ɛi,
broke,		əu
broken		
quite adv.	ganz	kju:it
quiet adj.	ruhig	kju:ət
quietly adv.	stille	kju:ətli
well	wohl	u:et
affectionate	in Liebe er-	æfe'kʃmət
	geben, liebend	
son	Sohn	sʌn
Friday night	Freitag Abend	
night	Nacht	nait
dog-cart	zweirädriger	
	Einspanner-	
	wagen	
infinitival	infinit	ɪnfɪ'nɪtɪvəl
gerund	Gerundium	dʒə'rʌnd
progressive	fortschreitend	prɒ'gre'sɪv
reading-book	Lesebuch	
dining-room	Esszimmer	
to patrol	die Runde	pə'trəʊt
	machen	
to permit	erlauben	pə'mɪt
to prefer	verziehen	pə'fɛr
to offer	anbieten	ɔ'fər
to beg	bitten	
beggar	Bettler	begər
to occur	vorkommen	ə'kɔ:r

SKETCH IX.

eighth	achter	eɪtʃ
seaport	Meereshafen	sɪ'pɔ:t
sea	Meer	
naval station	Marinestation	nə'vɪt
east	Ost	ɪst
a. m. ²⁾	vormittags	ɛi e'm

¹⁾ Royal Military College (rɔ'ɪəl mɪ'lɪ'təri kɔ'li:dʒ): Kadettenanstalt.

²⁾ = lat. ante meridiem vor Mittag; so heißt — bei Angabe der Uhrzeit — „nachmittags“ sehr häufig p. m. (pɪ e'm, vgl. 13, 1) = post meridiem (54. 35).

ought to	sollten, müßten	<i>ʃt</i>
tunnel	Stollen, Tunnel	<i>tn'nt</i>
run	Eisenbahn= Fahrt	
an hour and a quarter	fünfviertel Stunde	<i>āw'ər</i>
just yet	gerade jetzt	<i>dʒvst</i>
Haslemere	(Surrey)	<i>hæ'zlm̄ər</i>
Tennyson	Tennyson	<i>te'nɪsən</i>
poet	Dichter	<i>pōu't</i>
used to	pflegte	<i>jʌst</i>
to live	leben, wohnen	<i>liv</i>
half way	auf halbem Wege	<i>hāf'wē</i>
later	später	<i>lētər</i>
we must	wir müssen	<i>mʌst</i>
pretty <i>adv.</i>	ziemlich	<i>pri:tɪ</i>
pretty well	so ziemlich	
to take	nehmen, bringen	
card	Karte	<i>kārd</i>
star	Stern	<i>stār</i>
garter ¹⁾	Strumpfband	<i>gārtər</i>
where	1. wo 2. wohin	<i>hɜ:ər</i>
under	unter	<i>vndər</i>
railway	Eisenbahn=	
bridge	Überführung	
pocket	Tasche	<i>pɔ'kit</i>
pocket-book	Brieftasche	
coming to	uns entgegen	
meet us	kommend	
how do you do? ²⁾	wie geht's dir?	<i>hā'ndʒə</i> <i>də</i>
wife	Gefrau	<i>waɪf</i>
young	jung	<i>jʌŋ</i>
tender	Begleitschiff	<i>te'ndər</i>
troop-ship	(Truppen=)	<i>trū'pʃɪp</i>
	Transport=	
	Dampfer	

together	zusammen	<i>təge'dər</i>
on board	an Bord von	<i>bɔrd</i>
Tyne	Flußname	<i>tāɪn</i>
cape	Kap	<i>kæp</i>
hope	Hoffnung	
to sail	segeln, fahren	<i>seɪl</i>
to lie, lay,	liegen	<i>ai, ei, ein</i>
lain, lying		
side by side	nebeneinander	
shall we be	werden wir	
allowed	dürfen	
to be allowed	Erlaubnis er- halten	<i>ə'laʊd</i>
to allow	erlauben	
man-of-war	Kriegsschiff	<i>mæn'vɔ:ər</i>
perhaps	vielleicht	<i>p'ræps</i>
men	Männer, Leute	<i>men</i>
man	Mann	<i>mæn</i>
they go	sie exerzieren	
through		
their prac- tice		
practice	Übung	<i>præ'ktɪs</i>
gun	Kanone	<i>ɡʌn</i>
which <i>rel.</i>	was	
worth seeing	sehenswert	<i>vɜ:p</i>
permission	Erlaubnis	<i>p'rmi'sən</i>
to permit	erlauben	<i>p'rmit</i>
dockyard	Seelagerhof Werftbecken	<i>dɔ'kjɑrd</i>
yard	Hof	
dock	1. Trockenwerft, 2. Hafenbecken	
something	etwas	<i>səm'θɪŋ</i>
to eat	essen	
fresh	frisch	<i>frefʃ</i>
the sea	die See	<i>si</i>
air	Luft	<i>ɛər</i>
hungry	hungrig	<i>hʌŋgrɪ</i>
meal	Mahlzeit	<i>mil</i>

¹⁾ Star and Garter (Ordensstern und Kniebandorden), höchster Orden in England. Viele Hotels führen diese Bezeichnung.

²⁾ Wird familiär oft zur Begrüßung gebraucht (ohne daß man eine Antwort erwartet), wo wir im Deutschen 'Guten Morgen', 'guten Tag' oder dergl. sagen; vgl. Engl. Scholar S. 13. II. 2.

fair	schön	fēr
weather	Wetter	ŷe'dr
warm	warm	ŷōrm
pleasant	angenehm	ple:znt
voyage	Meerfahrt	vōi'rdž
thanks	Dank	þenks
once	einst	ŷons
famous	berühmt	fēmŷs
as if	als ob	
anybody	jeder (beliebige)	e'nibodɪ
flagship	Flaggenschiff	flæg'sip
battle	Schlacht	bætt
victory	Sieg	vɪ'ktɔri
to die	sterben	dāi
mast	Maſt	māst
Devonport	(Devonshire)	de'vnpɔrt
Chatham	(Kent)	tʃætəm
Medway	Fluß	me'dŷeɪ
Rosyth	(Firth of Forth)	rɔ'saɪp
adverb	Adverb	æ'dvɜb
to pick out	herauslesen	
passage	Stelle	pæ'sɪdʒ
full	voll	
auxiliary	Hilfs-Zeitwort	ɔgzi'ljəri
verb		vɜrb
defective	unvollständig	dɪ'fektɪv

SKETCH X.

to write,	ſchreiben	rāit
wrote,		rōut
written		ritn
although	obwohl	ɔldōw
month	Monat	mɒnθ
ago	vor (jezt)	ægōw
to receive	erhalten	rɜ:ʃv
jolly	vergnügt	
little	gering, klein	

progress	Fortschritt	prɔ'grɜs
fish	Fiſch	fiʃ
to fish	angeln	
pool	erweiterte tiefe	pūl
	Stelle in ei-	
	nem Flußlauf	
stile	Zauntritt ¹⁾	stāit
to provide	verſehen	prɔ'vaɪd
plenty of	eine Fülle von	plenti
	(maſſenhaft)	
capital	vorzüglich, fein	kæ'pɪtəl
sport	Beluſtigung im	spɔrt
	Freien mit	
	körperlicher	
	Übung	
also	auch	ɔ'tso
a good deal	(ein gut Teil)	dɪt
of	ziemlich viel	
tennis	Regballſpiel	tenɪs
occasional	gelegentlich	ɔkæ'i'ʒnəl
cricket	Tor=Schlag-	krikɪt
	ballſpiel	
band	Orcheſter	bænd
to show	zeigen	ʃōw
to show over	herumführen in	
as well	ebenſo, auch	æzŷet
stocks ²⁾	ſelling, Stapel	stɔks
million	Million	mi'ljən
pound ³⁾	Pfund	pāund
afterwards	ſpäter	ɑftə'wɜdz
elderbrother	älterer Bruder	e'ldə brʌðr
Alfred	Alfred	æ'tfrəd
undergrad ⁴⁾	Student	v'ndə'græd
Germany	Deutſchland	dʒɜ'mənɪ
life	Leben	laɪf
to row	rudern	rōw
college ⁵⁾	Univerſitäts-	kɔ'lɪdʒ
	ſtudienhaus	

¹⁾ Tritt zum Übersteigen; plattdeutsch: dat Stegel, Stiegsel.

²⁾ Ballengerüst im Trockendock, auf dem ein Schiff gezimmert wird.

³⁾ £ = lat. libra Pfund; vgl. im Deutschen *li* = lb (libra, lateinisch, = Pfund);
 ₤ = denarius (Pfennig); £ 2 000 000 = two million pounds.

⁴⁾ In der Studentensprache Abkürzung von undergraduate (*vndə'græ'duət*) = Nicht-graduierter (der noch keinen akademischen Grad erlangt hat).

⁵⁾ Die meisten aller Studenten in Oxford wohnen und erhalten ihren Unterricht in den einzelnen Colleges, die in ihrer Gesamtheit (über 20) die University (*jū'nɪvɜ'sɪtɪ*) bilden.

his College	die Mannschaft	
Eight ¹⁾	jeines College	
summer	Sommer	<i>som</i> ^{rr}
race	Wettfahrt	<i>rēis</i>
to have the	das Recht	
right	haben	
to keep, ²⁾	behalten	<i>kīp</i>
kept, kept		<i>kept</i>
oar	Ruder	<i>ōr</i>
four	Vierermanns-	
	schaft	
Henley ³⁾	(Themse)	<i>henl</i> ^r
to want	brauchen	<i>wōnt</i>
abroad	ins Ausland	<i>abrōd</i>
Lord's	Lord's Cr.-Platz	
Cricket		
Ground ⁴⁾		<i>grāund</i>
chief	hauptsächlichst	<i>tsīf</i>

Berkeley	Eigennamen	<i>bārkli</i>
to keep up	aufrechterhalten	<i>kīp v'p</i>
reputation	der gute Ruf	<i>reputēi'sh'n</i>
by making	dadurch, daß er	
	machte	
score	Gesamtzahl	<i>skōr</i>
	von 'runs' ⁵⁾	
'Varsity ⁶⁾	Universität	<i>vārsiti</i>
match	Wettspiel	<i>matš</i>
newspaper	Zeitung	<i>njūz'pēip</i> ^{rr}
to post ⁷⁾	mit der Post	<i>pōust</i>
	abschicken	
speaker	Redner	<i>spī'kr</i>
debate	Debatte	<i>dibēit</i>
union ⁸⁾	Verein, Klub	<i>jū'n'ōn</i>
tutor	Hofmeister,	<i>tjūt</i> ^{rr}
	Studienlehrer	
Matheson	Eigennamen	<i>mæ'p'son</i>

¹⁾ Die von seinem college zur Bemannung ihres college-Bootes für die Wetttruderfahrt auserlesenen acht Mann.

²⁾ Zum Andenken auf seinem Zimmer aufbewahren.

³⁾ Regatten im Anfang Juli.

⁴⁾ Lord's, at St. John's Wood (west of Regent's Park), is the chief cricket ground in London. Die Hauptspiele im Juli (Oxford gegen Cambridge, Eton gegen Harrow ufm.) ziehen die feine Welt aus ganz England und den Kolonien herbei. Lord's ist — was kontinentalen Beobachtern oft zunächst unverständlich erscheint — der Glanzpunkt des sportlustigen Englands. Es ist mehr als ein Stellbühnen feinsten Kleidertrachten; mehr als eine gloria parentum: außer den aus allen Teilen Englands herbeigeeilten Eltern und Geschwistern der mitspielenden Schüler und Studenten wohnen dem Schauspiele Tausende von Schaulustigen aus den englischen Kolonien und aus den Vereinigten Staaten Amerikas bei, welche die Londoner season, nicht zum mindesten jedoch auch die Aussicht auf die Tage in Lord's herbeigelockt hat. Jubelnd begrüßen sie alle die im cricket, diesem vornehmsten und sozusagen männlichsten aller englischen Sporte, auftretenden Spieler als ein decus patriae. Und diese patriotische Begeisterung beschränkt sich nicht bloß auf die den Festspielen beizuwohnenden Zuschauer; sie durchzittert gleichfalls die Herzen von Millionen, denen Telegraph und Zeitungen im Heimatlande wie in den fernsten Kolonien den Verlauf der Spiele in allen Einzelheiten verkünden. Die Tage in Lord's sind wie ein die Herzen einigendes Bindemittel der zerstreut auf dem Erdball wohnenden, politisch mannigfaltig geschiedenen Engländer und englisch Denkenden, welche in den Sportleistungen von Oxford und Cambridge, von Eton und Harrow, von Westminster und St. Paul's, von Clifton und Winchester, von Charterhouse und Rugby u. a. der großen Schulen des Landes eine männlich-vornehme Kraftäußerung des angelsächsischen Volkstums erblicken.

⁵⁾ score eigentlich = das Aufschreiben der einzelnen 'runs'; run das Rennen, der Lauf = das Hin- und Herlaufen zwischen den wickets, d. h. den beiden Dreifuß-Balltoren, gegen welche beim Cricket der Ball geschlagen wird. Es siegt diejenige Partei, welche die meisten 'runs' gemacht hat.

⁶⁾ Studentenausdruck für University.

⁷⁾ Auf das Postamt bringen, in den Briefkasten stecken.

⁸⁾ The Union ist der Name eines Studentenvereins in Oxford. In einem besonders dazu gebauten Saale der Lesehalle der Union finden zur Übung der Mitglieder in der Redegewandtheit Erörterungen in parlamentarischer Form über politische und andere Tagesfragen statt.

to set, set,	setzen	set
set, setting		
to set to	Arbeit geben	
work		
every	jeder	ĉvri
short	kurz	šort
composition	Aussatz	kompōzi'sh'n
heavy	schwer	hevi
sheep	Schaf, Schafe	šip
sheep-run ¹⁾	Farm mit Schafzucht	
to reach	erreichen	ritš
sort	Art	sōrt
what sort of	was für ein?	
what sort of	was für	
weather	Wetter?	
scarcity	Seltenheit, Mangel	skē'r'siti
during prep.	während	djū'riŋ
dry	trocken	drai
season	Jahreszeit	sizn
article	Artikel	ārtikl
definite	bestimmt	de'finit
indefinite	unbestimmt	
noun	Nomen, Nenn-, Hauptwort	nāun
adjective	Eigenschaftsw.	æ'džektiv
adverb	Umstandswort	æ'dvərb
preposition	Verhältnißwort	prepōzi'sh'n
conjunction	Bindewort	kōndžv'ŋkšn

interjection	Empfindungsw.	intē'dže'kšn
numeral	Zahlwort	njū'mrət
numerous	zahlreich	nū'mrəv
number	Zahl	nv'mbr
summary	gedrängte Zu- sammen- fassung	səməri
consonant	Konsonant	kōnsnənt
vowel	Vokal	vāu'ət
vocalic	vokalisch	vōkə'lik
final	End-	fāinət
semi-	Halb-	sē'mi
silent	stumm	sāilənt
to hiss	zischen	his
to mix	mischen	miks
to para- phrase	umschreiben	pæ'r'frēiz
to form	bilden	fōrm
formation	Bildung	fōrmē'sh'n
to compose	zusammensetzen	kompōuz
compound	Kompositum	kōmpōund
to derive	ableiten	də'rā'v
derivation	Ableitung	də'rivē'sh'n
derivative	hergeleitet	də'rivativ
prefix	Vorsilbe	prī'fiks
suffix	Nachsilbe	sū'fiks
Romanic	romanisch ²⁾	rōmānik
French	französisch	frentš
Germanic	germanisch ³⁾	džōrmæ'nik
to connect	verknüpfen	kōn'ekt

¹⁾ Ein sich meilenweit ausdehnendes Feld, auf dem die Schafe sich auslaufen und weiden können.

²⁾ Die romanischen Sprachen sind Tochtersprachen des Lateinischen. Die romanischen (oder neulateinischen) Sprachen (Französisch, Italienisch, Rumänisch, Spanisch, Portugiesisch usw.) sind demnach untereinander Schwestersprachen.

³⁾ Die germanischen Sprachen zerfallen in drei Hauptgruppen: **Ostgermanisch** (Gotisch), — **Nordgermanisch** (Isländisch, Norwegisch, Dänisch, Schwedisch), — **Westgermanisch** (Englisch, Niederländisch oder Niederdeutsch [Plattdeutsch], Holländisch . . . und ebenfalls westgermanisch, aber von den übrigen westgermanischen Sprachen durch die zweite Lautverschiebung getrennt: das Hochdeutsche).

Diese drei Gruppen gehen zurück auf eine gemeinsame germanische Sprache: das Urgermanische (Primitive Germanic), das etwa zur Zeit gesprochen wurde, als im Zeitalter des Perikles († 429 vor Chr.) die griechische Sprache in höchster Blüte stand.

Das Urgermanische ist eine Schwestersprache des Griechischen, des Lateinischen, des Keltischen, des Slavischen, des Sanskrit usw., welche alle auf eine gemeinsame Mutter — die indogermanische Ursprache — zurückgehen.

Älteste Denkmäler: — des Gotischen: Ulfilas († 381 nach Chr.), — des Altenglischen (Angelsächsischen): etwa 700. — des Althochdeutschen: etwa 750.

cognate	verwandt	<i>kə'gnɪt</i>	peculiarity	Eigentümlich=	<i>p'ikjʉlɪ'æ'rɪtɪ</i>
related	verwandt	<i>rə'lɪ'tɪd</i>		fein	
group	Gruppe	<i>grʉp</i>	syllable	Silbe	<i>sɪ'ləbəl</i>
family	Familie	<i>fæ'mɪli</i>	to unite	vereinen	<i>jʉnɪ'ɪt</i>
same	selb, gleich	<i>sɛ'ɪm</i>	sometimes	manchmal	<i>sə'mtʌɪmz</i>
orthography	Rechtschreibung	<i>rɛ'pɔ'grɛ'fi</i>	hyphen	Bindestrich	<i>hɪ'ɪfən</i>
orthographi-	orthographisch	<i>rɛ'pɔ'græ'fɪkəl</i>	rule	Regel	<i>rʉ'kəl</i>
cal			exception	Ausnahme	<i>ək'sɛ'pʃən</i>

the capital letter der große Buchstabe, die Majuskel.

a small letter ein kleiner Buchstabe, Minuskel.

Always give your answers in a complete sentence, not in single words. — Sentence Satz, complete vollständig, single einzeln.

A principal clause Hauptsatz; a subordinate clause Nebensatz. — an interrogative sentence ein Fragesatz; an interrogative clause ein abhängiger (indirekter) Fragesatz; a relative clause Relativsatz. — to parse die Wörter eines Satzes nach Redeteilen benennen, ihre Form bestimmen und gleichzeitig angeben, wovon sie abhängen und was von ihnen abhängig ist.

Do not scratch out (durchstreichen), do not write above the line, do not write in the margin (Rand) in doing your fair copy (Abschrift, Reinschrift) or your correction (Fehlerverbeßerung).

To spell buchstabieren. How do you spell 'breakfast'?

Marks of Punctuation: the full stop or period (= Punkt), the colon, the semicolon, the comma, the [note (point) of] interrogation, or query, — the [note (point) of] exclamation.

Other signs, or marks, used in writing are:

the parentheses (), the brackets [], the brace { },

the dash —, the hyphen -, the asterisk (or star) *,

dots (to mark an ellipsis) . . . , the apostrophe ',

the diæresis " [to denote that the second of two adjacent vowels is to be pronounced separately, as: aërial, coöperate],

'inverted commas', or "quotation marks" [which, in English, are either double or single, and are both placed above the line],

the section § [but: a new paragraph = neue Zeile, Absatz, beginning of a new line at more than the usual distance from the margin; see English Scholar, page 112, number 44],

the macron ¯, a short, straight, horizontal mark, placed over vowels to denote that they are to be pronounced with a long sound,

the breve (*brīw*) ˘, a curved mark used commonly to indicate the short quantity of a vowel,

the caret ^, a mark placed in writing below the line to indicate that something (written above or in the margin) has been omitted (left out) in that place [*caret* in Latin = there is wanting es fehlt].

= (is, or: are, equal to, or) equals, or: equal [to show exact agreement or equality].

COMPOSITION I.¹⁾

a) **Balmoral** Schloß im Grampiangebirge, unweit des Dee, an dessen Mündung Aberdeen (9, 36) liegt. — **Osborne** zur Zeit der Königin Viktoria königliches Residenzschloß im Norden der Isle of Wight, [jetzt durch Schenkung König Edwards VII. englisches Nationaleigentum: after Queen Victoria's death (Tod) King Edward VII. gave Osborne Castle to the English nation]. — King Edward VII.'s [= King Edward the Seventh's] country-house (Landhaus) was at Sandringham, Norfolk, not far from the town of King's Lynn [Wegent auf Linn!] on the Wash. — **Windsor Castle** Schloß in der Stadt Windsor, 43 miles westlich von London, an der Themse — **the Thames** (9, 20; 11, 21) — Germany (10, 11) Deutschland.

b) **bank** (Fluß-)Ufer: the right and the left bank of a river — city Stadt, the City of London die Altstadt von London 25, 2 — **hundredweight** engl. Zentner (1 cwt. = 45·359 kg, to weigh wiegen) — **£** = lat. libra = engl. pound Pfund — **lord** adliger Herr, Lord Mayor Titel des Oberbürgermeisters in London, mayor Bürgermeister (major 34, 30) — **reign** Regierungszeit (royal königlich) rulership Herrschaft (ruler Herrscher, rule Regel 3, 14) — **sideboard** Büfett (Neben-, Anrichtentisch) im Esszimmer side 25, 11), **board** 1. Brett; (black-board Tafel im Schulzimmer), 2. (Schiffs-)Bord 43, 23, 3. Tisch, Koft, vgl. boarding-house Familienpension 17, 8 — **teeth** Zähne, tooth Zahn. —

many viele — a great many sehr viele (41, 27) many — a manch — St. = saint (25, 3). —

to pay her (ihr: Dativ des Personalpronomens) a second visit — its (seine) completion = the completion of Windsor Castle — her (ihr: possessive) grandson — each (jeder) of the Queen's one hundred and fifty guests.

800 eight hundred — 900,000 nine hundred thousand — 1891 eighteen hundred and ninety-one — 150 one hundred and fifty — William II. = William the Second.

ago her, jetzt vor (eigentlich = vergangen; wird nachgestellt) — only nur, erst — viz mit oder ohne Punkt dahinter: (gesprochen namely *nämli*) nämlich (ursprünglich Abkürzung von lat. videlicet). — greatly höchst, sehr — justly in gerechter Weise, mit Recht.

when wenn, als [quand, lorsque] — as da, weil [comme] — because weil [parce que] — while conj. während [pendant que]; during prep. während (49, 16) [pendant].

at so ample a banquet bei einem so prächtigen Brunnmahl — so powerful an emperor ein so mächtiger Kaiser — to many a royal guest manchem königlichen Gaste — many a splendid festival manch prächtiges Fest — many an historical [Gr. § 9] event manch geschichtliches Ereignis — half a hundredweight ein halber Zentner.

¹⁾ Die folgenden Zusammenstellungen enthalten teils Sachertklärungen, teils phraselogisch, grammatisch oder sonstwie besonders Beachtenswertes. Sie dienen zur Wiederholung **nach Durcharbeitung** und nach Retrovertierung des betreffenden Stüdes.

who **had** (war) come 55, 30; vgl. I **have** (bin) come; he **has** (ist) gone 18, 5; siehe Grammatik § 69 d. — to give a welcome to **bewillkommen**, freundlich aufnehmen — to pay a visit to einen (feierlichen) Besuch abstatten, besuchen — supposing that (angenommen den Fall, daß = if wenn, falls: if the old kings could have seen the splendour, they would have been greatly astonished — more *than* eight hundred years ago vor (jetzt) mehr *als* 800 Jahren — on the seventh of July — Queen Victoria die Königin V. (1837—1901) — King Edward the Seventh der König Eduard VII. (1901—1910) — King George the Fifth der König Georg V. (von 1910 an) — the Emperor William the Second Kaiser W. II. — the title of Empress of India der Titel einer Kaiserin von Indien — a piece of land ein Stück Land — English History die Engl. Geschichte.

COMPOSITION II.

a) **Albany** Distrikt in Schottland — **Brooklyn**, Stadt im Osten von New York auf Long Island, neuerdings in New York einverleibt. — **New Amsterdam**, Name der alten, 1626 von Peter Minuit auf — dem von ihm für 24 Dollar gekauften — Manhattan Island gegründeten holländischen Stadt, deren Name nach der Eroberung durch die Engländer (1664) in New York umgetauft wurde. (York ist eine Stadt in Nordengland). — **New York** (10, 22) wird im Westen vom Hudson, im Osten vom East River umflossen. The Hudson is a fresh water (süßes Flußwasser) river; the East River, which is part of the Atlantic Ocean, has salt water (salziges Meerwasser). Westlich vom Hudson river liegt der Staat New Jersey (mit den Städten Jersey City, Hoboken u. a.) — **New England**: die Neu-England-Staaten (Name der in der ersten Hälfte des siebzehnten Jahrhunderts (seit 1607) in Nordamerika gegründeten britischen Kolonien) haben den Grundstock der Vereinigten Staaten (the United States) gebildet. Zur Zeit des Unabhängigkeitskrieges (War of Independence 1775—1783) bestanden 13 Neu-England-Staaten (mit Boston im Staate Massachusetts als Vorort).

b) **acre** der Morgen (= 40,47 A.) — **car** (Eisenbahn-)Wagen in Amerika, in England meist carriage (railway-carriage), (sleeping-car Schlafwagen) — **dollar** amerikanischer Taler (ungefähr 4,25 Mark). Das Wort dollar ist etymologisch dasselbe wie das plattdeutsche Daler, hd. Taler. In der handelsüblichen Abkürzung \$ stellt das S eine ursprüngliche 8 dar. Als der Dollar in den Vereinigten Staaten Landesmünze wurde, hatte er denselben Wert als das bis dahin übliche spanische 8 Reale-Geldstück (= eight reals; spanisch real = eigentlich „Königsmünze“) — **estate** Grundstück, Grund und Boden, real estate Grundeigentum, unbewegliches Vermögen — **ferry-boat** Fährboot (steam ferry-boat großer, breiter Personendampfer), **ferry** Fähre — **inch** Zoll (2,539 cm) — **level** Niveau, wagerechte Fläche, **high water level** Hochwasserspiegel — **liberty** Freiheit — **light** Licht (to light 50, 36; to lighten 57, 16) — **nought** Null (als Zahlenwert) — **passenger** Passagier, Reisender, **foot passenger** Fußgänger — **price** Preis, Kosten — **shore** Ufer (des Meeres, eines meerartig erweiterten Flusses; bank Flußufer) — **ton** Tonne (etwa 1000 kg) — **the Yankee** der Neu-Engländer (die größte Stadt von Neu-England ist Boston) — **yard** Elle (= 3 feet = 91,439 cm).

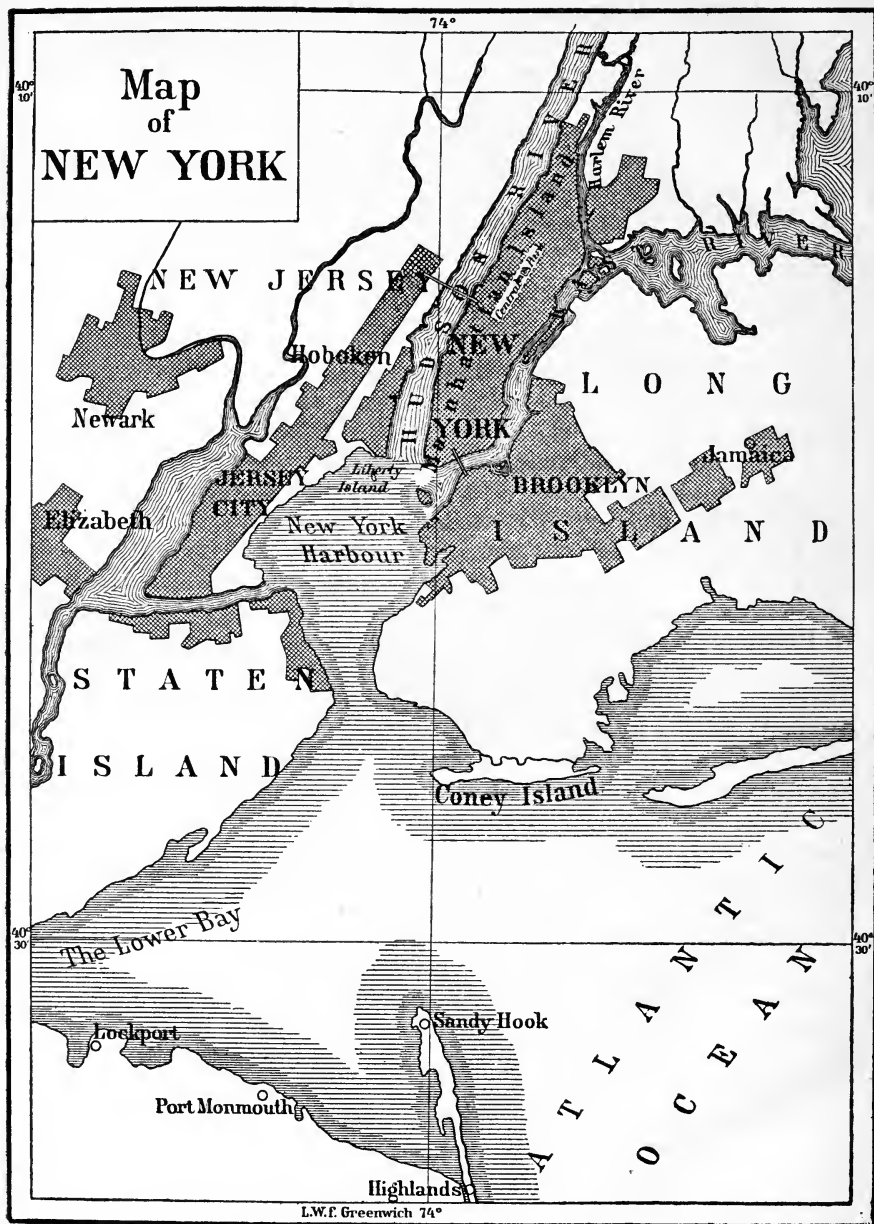
difficult schwer (zu tun 30, 30; 37, 31) — elevated erhöht, hoch, the elevated railway die Hochbahn — engaged in beschäftigt mit — equal to gleich (-kommend) — the latter der letztere (later später 31, 30; 57, 2) — only alleinig (only *adv.* nur, erst 24, 26; 55, 22) — real wirklich (vorhanden, in Wirklichkeit bestehend).

the river . . with its (seinen) steam ferry-boats — its (ihre = bridge) electric lights — the area of which deren Flächeninhalt — each of which von denen ein jedes — what a (*si.*) was für ein! (Ausruf); what (*plu.*) was für! (Ausruf) — to anybody but (irgend jemandem, wenn nicht =) jemand anders als dem — to any part of nach irgendeinem Teile von, überall hin in — the river itself der Fluß selbst — the towers themselves die Türme selbst.

270 (two hundred and seventy) feet — 1200 (twelve hundred) yards — £ 3,000,000 (three million pounds) — \$ 4,000,000 (four million dollars) — 800,000 (eight hundred thousand) inhabitants — thousands of tons of steel — 5989 feet = 1825.39 metres (five thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine feet equal to eighteen hundred and twenty-five, [decimal point oder sehr häufig einfach nur] decimal three nine metres) — in 1806 (eighteen hundred and six oder auch: one thousand eight hundred and six) im Jahre 1806 — on the 22nd (twenty-second) of July — in the sixty-fourth year of his age in seinem 64. Lebensjahre — 15 ³/₄ inches (fifteen inches and three quarters) — 13 ¹/₂ years (thirteen years and a half) — 41 ¹/₂ square miles (forty-one and a half square miles oder auch: forty-one square miles and a half) — ²/₃ (two thirds) — five times as many 5 mal so viele — twice zweimal — half a mile broad eine halbe Meile breit.

above the high water level über dem Hochwasserspiegel — between the (two) towers zwischen — formed by gebildet von (36, 32) — for the first time zum erstenmal — for many years auf viele Jahre — from January 1870 to May 1883 von . . bis (36, 33) — to Europe nach (20, 34; 25, 22) — is situated upon (oder on) an island liegt auf einer Insel — on the opposite shore am gegenüberliegenden Ufer.

the City of New York die Stadt N. Y. — the kingdom of Prussia — tons of steel Tonnen Stahl — New York proper das eigentliche N. Y. — Brooklyn Bridge die Brooklynische Brücke — the Brooklyn tower der Brooklynische Turm — Colonel Adams der Oberst Adams — too great an undertaking eine zu große Unternehmung — however difficult a task it was (eine wie auch immer schwierige Aufgabe es war) wie schwierig auch die Aufgabe war — on the average im Durchschnitt — to be spoken of as besprochen, erwähnt werden als = genannt werden — to open for traffic dem Verkehr übergeben, eröffnen — it was taken from them by es wurde ihnen weggenommen von — . . — it does make sie doch macht! — he would sit there er pflegte dort zu sitzen — it takes more than 20 minutes es beansprucht mehr als 20 Min. = man braucht mehr als 20 Min. (50, 2) — no sooner . . than (nicht eher . . als =) kaum . . so (als) —



a little more than 20 years ago vor jetzt etwas mehr als 20 Jahren — in their turn ihrerseits (it is your turn; it is my turn; Whose turn is it? 20, 23; 21, 9) — *it was they who* called sie benannten — six months later ein halb Jahr später — more than half a mile mehr als eine halbe Meile — over 800,000 inhabitants über (mehr als) — the bridge was constructing = was being constructed [Gr. § 88 d] wurde gebaut.

COMPOSITION III.

a) **Captain Cook**, englischer Forschungsreisender, Entdecker von Neu-Seeland von Cook Strait, Torres Strait, der Behringsstraße usw. In 1779 he was killed by the natives on Hawaii, one of the Sandwich islands — Sturt († 1869) und Mitchell, englische Forschungsreisende in Australien — Roper, Calvert und Gilbert, Reichhards Begleiter — **Henry Kendall**, australischer (New South Wales) Dichter 1842–1882 — Fahrenheit, deutscher Physiker, † 1736 — Réaumur, französischer Naturforscher, † 1757 — **Bristol**, Stadt in Westengland — **The 'Commonwealth of Australia'**, gegründet am 1. Januar 1901 (mit dem Wahlspruch: 'One People, One Destiny') umfaßt 6 Staaten: New South Wales (Hauptstadt Sydney), Victoria (Melbourne), Queensland (Brisbane), South Australia (Adelaide), Western Australia (Perth) und Tasmania (Hobart). — Der Staat **New Zealand** besteht aus mehreren Inseln (Hauptstadt: Auckland 10, 5; 82, 25; 82, 17). — **Port Essington** on the Gulf of Carpentaria an der Nordküste Australiens — **Moreton Bay** an der Ostküste bei der Stadt Brisbane — **New Guinea** (in the Pacific 10, 5).

b) to dress 1. zurecht machen, verbinden, 2. sich ankleiden 14, 12, he dresses — to drown ertränken; to be (oder get) drowned ertrinken — to pitch (in den Boden) einstecken, he pitches, to pitch a tent ein Zelt aufschlagen — to arrive at ankommen an, to be arrived at erreicht werden — to bury begraben; he buries [2 silbig] 41, 31 — to dry trocknen (dry *adj.* 49, 16), he dries [1 silbig] 41, 31 — to force, he forces [2 silbig 41, 31] zwingen, mit Gewalt durchbringen — to pierce; he pierces durchbohren 41, 31 — to rely on sich verlassen auf, he relies on 41, 31.

body Körper (anybody 44, 3; 56, 37) — country Land, Vaterland, countryman Landsmann; fatherland Vaterland (vorzugsweise vom Vaterlande der Deutschen gebraucht. Merke: „mein Vaterland“ = my country, oder auch: my native country, my own (eigenes) country). — flesh Fleisch (la chair; meat = la viande) — ox Ochse, *pl.* oxen — parents Eltern.

heroic heldenmütig [Gr. § 9] — huge ungeheuer, groß (Ausdrücke 6, 30) — the latter der letztere (the former der erstere) — naked nackt [2 silbig Gr. § 70 a U.] — natural natürlich, Natural Science die Naturwissenschaften; science die exakten Wissenschaften — willing (*adj.*) willens, wünschend, to be willing bereit sein, wollen.

in search of him (auf die Suche nach ihm) ihn zu suchen 59, 31 — with him mit ihm 59, 28; mit, bei sich 58, 34 — with them mit sich 58, 36 — through it dadurch, durch dieselbe 58, 14 — for its sake ihrerthalben = for the sake of Science 58, 25 — out of his aus seinem, dem seinigen 59, 9 — all this dies alles 59, 15 — Cook Strait . . and that between (und die zwischen) Australia and New Guinea (= Torres Strait) 58, 1 —

all who alle, die 59, 28 (all that alles, was 3, 11) — a native, who der — the strait which die (welche) 58, 1 — their tents, which welche 59, 3 — a journey in which auf welcher 58, 12 — such fresh meat as solch frisches Fleisch wie (es) 58, 38 — everything alles — neither keiner von beiden — some twenty years einige zwanzig Jahre — himself (ihn) selbst 58, 17, sich (selbst) 59, 24; 59, 4 — myself mich (selbst) 58, 32 — not far from each other nicht weit voneinander 59, 3.

much sehr (*much* frightened) — as quickly as possible so schnell wie möglich — a great deal sehr viel — for instance zum Beispiel 58, 28 — as usual = as it was usual wie gewöhnlich.

nor auch nicht, noch (nor did he feel) — after nachdem — as da, weil 58, 18, (as their guide als 59, 22, as large as ebenso groß als (wie) 58, 6) — because weil — that damit 59, 18 — though (although 47, 4) obgleich — till bis (not . . till erst 58, 6) — whether . . or 59, 28 ob . . oder — yet jedoch.

against gegen 59, 6 — about in betreff, hinsichtlich 59, 1 — at (in, zu) Sydney 59, 34, at Kottbus 58, 20 — by the camp fire bei, an 59, 4 — for its sake ihretwegen 58, 25 — to start from Sydney . . for Port Essington von Sydney (10, 4) abrüden nach 58, 9 — from East to West von . . nach 59, 26 — in spite of all this trotz alledem 59, 15 — on (auf) his first voyage 57, 37; on this expedition 58, 34 — but for a native (nur wegen eines Eingeborenen = without a native ohne einen Eingeborenen; Sinn: had there not been a native = if there had not been a native), they might never have reached Port Essington.

to undergo much suffering viel Ungemach ausstehen — to open up for colonization der Besiedelung erschließen — to think a great deal of a person sehr hoch schätzen, a person is a great deal thought of wird sehr geschätzt — he has never been heard of since es ist seitdem nie etwas von ihm gehört worden — all hope of his ever being found again had been given up jede Hoffnung, er könne je wiedergefunden werden, war aufgegeben worden — to be persuaded by bestimmt werden (sich durch Zureden bestimmen lassen) von — to get (oder be) killed getötet werden, seinen Tod finden — to form a friendship Freundschaft schließen — to conceive a project einen Plan fassen — he did not content himself with er begnügte sich nicht mit — there is danger in delay [delay = Substantiv: Aufschub = it is dangerous to delay (verschieben); delaying (to delay) is dangerous] = *periculum in mora*. — Captain Cook der Kapitän Cook — Dr. Leichhardt der Doktor Leichhardt — to go to school zur Schule gehen — to become a student Student werden — such an ardent enthusiast ein so feuriger Enthusiast — such a lucky escape ein so glückliches Entkommen — the province of Brandenburg die Provinz Brandenburg — at the University of Berlin an der Universität Berlin — in his honour ihm zu Ehren (27, 16) — all my companions alle meine Genossen — by birth von Geburt — two by two zu zweien.

COMPOSITION IV.

a) Caius Julius **Cæsar** † 44 vor Christo — **Herodotus** Herodot von Salarnassos † um 420 vor Chr. — **Rollright** Dorf in Oxfordshire — **Stonehenge**, wörtlich 'Steingehänge', Name der Ruinen eines altheidnischen, wahrscheinlich vorhistorischen Steinbaues in der Salisbury Plain. Diese, ein Hochland voller alter Gräber, befindet sich 9 miles von der Stadt Salisbury in Wiltshire nordwestlich von Southampton — **Brittany** die Bretagne [Westfrankreich] — **Oxfordshire** Grafschaft, in der die Stadt Oxford (an der oberen Themse) liegt — the Clyde (9, 35) — the Firth of Forth (9, 35) — the Tyne (**Newcastle-on-Tyne**) an der Ostküste Nordenglands — **Anglesey** Insel in the Irish Sea (9, 31) im Nordwesten von Wales — Orkney oder the **Orkneys** = the Orkney-Islands im Nordwesten von Schottland; 'the Stones of Stenness' liegen auf der Südwestecke der Hauptinsel — **Watling Street**, eine der von den Römern erbauten Heerstraßen: von der alten Römerfestung Rutupiae [= Richborough] zwischen Dover und Ramsgate in Kent über London und Chester nach Wales (und Anglesey) und hinauf nach Schottland.

Augustine kam 597 nach England — Bertha, Tochter des Frankenkönigs Charibert in Paris — Ella altenglischer König — **Pope Gregory** Gregor der Große, Papst von 590—604 — **Hengist** und **Horsa**, der Sage nach die Anführer der Angelsachsen, ums Jahr 449 — St. Peter, der Apostel Petrus, von Nero hingerichtet, gilt als Begründer der Kirche in Rom — **Winfrith** (**Boniface** englischer Missionar aus Devonshire, Befehrer vieler deutschen Stämme: Winfried Bonifacius † 754) — **Canterbury**, heute mit 24 000 Einwohnern, Sitz eines Erzbischofs, Hauptort der englischen Staatskirche — Die sieben Reiche Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex bildeten zusammen die **Septarchie** (das „Siebenreich“); nach wechselvollen Befehdungen dieser Staaten untereinander errang schließlich (827) Wessex (mit der Hauptstadt Winchester) die Oberherrschaft. — **Thanet**, heute keine Insel mehr, da der Thanet von Kent einst trennende Meeresarm (der Wantsome) zuerst versandet und jetzt völlig verschwunden ist. Auf Thanet liegen die viel besuchten Badeörter Margate und Ramsgate (und zwischen diesen beiden das reizende Broadstairs, lange Zeit der Lieblingsaufenthalt von Charles Dickens 10, a). Etwa 3 miles südwestlich von Ramsgate liegt die kleine Hafenstadt Ebbsfleet.

b) to wonder sich wundern, neugierig sein, gern wissen mögen — to live leben, wohnen — to oppose entgegentreten, *mit Akkus.* — to rebel (42, 9) sich auflehnen, empören — to use gebrauchen (I used gebrauchte *juzd*, I used to pflegte *just*) — to happen geschehen, sich ereignen: he happened to es geschah, daß er . . — to help (*mit Akkus.*) helfen (help Hilfe 61, 34) — to obey gehorchen (*mit Akkus.*, to disobey 60, 31) — to thank (*mit Akkus.*) danken — to turn to sich wenden an (wenden 58, 30; vgl. 25, 10; turn Reihe 20, 23) — to agree to einwilligen in (to agree on übereinstimmen in betreff 60, 19) — to prove beweisen, sich erweisen als — to raise emporheben, erheben — believer der, die Gläubige [Gr. § 30 d] — Britain Britannien, Briton Britte (British; the British = the Britons) — Christmas [t ist stumm, wie oft zwischen s und Konsonant, vgl. castle 11, 22, mistletoe Mistel 60, 35] (Christmesse) Weihnachten — cromlech Kromlech, altheidnischer kreisförmiger Steinbau kolossalen Umfangs — Druid Druide, altkeltischer Priester, Druidism Druidismus, Druidentum — force Kraft, forces Streitkräfte (to force 59, 14) — historian [Gr. § 9] Geschichtsschreiber (history 17, 11) — home die Heimat (home nach Hause, at home zu Hause, from home von Hause)

— iron Eisen [Gr. § 6] — the Japanese die Japaner, Japanesen, a Japanese — men (*plur.* von man) = 1. Männer, 2. Menschen two Englishmen 59, 7) — nature die Natur (natural 58, 23; Aussprache: a in nature lautet wie a in lady (4, 14), daß erste a in natural lautet wie a in catches (4, 21) — people *si.* Volk; *plu.* 1. people Leute, Menschen, 2. peoples Völkerschaften, Völkerstämme (nations Völker, nation Volk) — the Roman der Römer, *plur.* the Romans (Roman *adj.* 17, 11) — war Krieg (man-of-war Kriegsschiff) — brethren Brüder, Mitbrüder, *plur.* von brother Bruder Gr. § 29 — cathedral Kathedrale [Hauptkirche der bischöflichen Residenz], Dom (25, 2) — chief Anführer (chief, *adj.* 55, 6; chiefly 37, 32) — Christian Christ, *adj.* christlich 62, 31), Christianity (Christentum, Christmas 60, 34) — custom Gewohnheit (mehrerer), Brauch — the dice die Würfel, Knobel (Gram. § 27), the die der Spielmwürfel — farm Ackerhof, Gehöft — the Germans die Deutschen (German *adj.*, Germany Deutschland) — habit Gewohnheit (Ungewohnheit eines einzelnen) — hair Haar, Haare — story Geschichte, Erzählung (history, historian) — town Stadt (to go to town 20, 35) — wife, *plu.* wives Ehefrau [Gr. § 26 A. 3].

afraid (of) in Angst, bange (vor) — the latter *si.* der letztere, *plur.* die letzteren — later später — native einheimisch (the natives die Eingeborenen 59, 2; a native 59, 22) — Roman römisch (the Roman der Römer, *pl.* the Romans 61, 15) — fond of eingenommen von (to be fond of etwas gern haben 45, 32) — little 1. wenig (a little ein wenig, etwas 41, 28), 2. klein — Saxon sächsisch (the Saxons, a Saxon) — very (eigentlich: wahr, recht 61, 34) gerade derselbe, ebenderjelbe (very *adv.* sehr).

they looked at them blickten hin auf dieselben, betrachteten sie — one of them einer von ihnen — how many of them (davon) — to speak to him mit ihm zu sprechen — those nearer home die näher an ihrer Heimat liegenden — of him who desjenigen, welcher — it was a cruel religion they (welche sie) taught — the stones which one meets with denen man begegnet, die man antrifft — which (was = und daß) gave them a great advantage — count them yourself zähle (du) sie selbst! — the Britons were unable to defend themselves (sich) — nearly related to one another nahe miteinander verwandt — one tribe against the other ein Stamm gegen den andern — anybody who (irgend jemand) jeder (beliebige), der — one man — some einige (sußt. 60, 19, adjektivisch 60, 28) — to some god für irgend einen Gott — any part irgendwelchen, jeden beliebigen Teil — the same number dieselbe Zahl — whatever forces they had (welche Streitkräfte sie auch immer hatten =) alles, was sie nur an Streitkräften hatten. — all their other property ihr ganzes andere Eigentum — those (daß) were prophetic words — of those to whom derer, denen — that the British had hoped for auf welche die B. gehofft hatten — he had so greatly distinguished himself er hatte sich so sehr ausgezeichnet — the king suffered himself to be baptized ließ sich taufen — who was herself already a believer welche selbst schon eine Gläubige war — one ought to defend oneself man sollte sich verteidigen — left to themselves sich selbst über-

lassen — among themselves unter sich — the Britons turned to their enemies themselves (an ihre Feinde selbst) for assistance — against one another gegeneinander — every jeder — everybody jedermann — the same derselbe — some einige — somebody jemand — such an effect eine solche Wirkung — such as (solche, wie =) diejenigen, welche = they who oder those who.

but nur, erst — even sogar — quite ganz, völlig — then dann, darauf, denn — there dorthin (dort, da 27, 13) — nowadays heutzutage — sometimes bisweilen, manchmal — one day (Akkus. der Zeit) eines Tages, einst — at that time zu jener Zeit, damals — at the present day heutzutage — at length endlich (at last 27, 10), schließlich — very much afraid of gar sehr . . .

(just) as (gerade so) wie; as some people wie (60, 28), known as als (60, 25) — both . . and sowohl . . als auch — in order to (vor einem Infinitiv) um zu (franz. pour) — nor was he allowed noch auch (60, 33) war es ihm gestattet — or oder — since seit, seitdem — so that so daß — than (nach einem Komparativ 57, 18; 34, 33) als — as well as sowohl . . als auch, all the men of his own kingdom as well as those of N.; (as well ebenfalls, gleichfalls 48, 1; both . . and; Gr. § 112.) = both all the men of . . and those of . . — therefore daher (there da, dort) — after nachdem [après que] — as als, wie [comme] — when als [lorsque, quand].

after (nach) a rule of 350 years — before Christ (B. C.) vor Christo, vgl. A. D. (anno domini im Jahre des Herrn =) after Christ — from London to Chester — in nature in der Natur — in Oxfordshire in der Grafschaft Oxford — in the East im Orient — near the village nahe bei, in der Nähe von — above (hoch oben über) the roofs (vgl. 57, 15) — across the sea [quer hinüber] über das Meer — at Rome in R. — between zwischen [zwischen] — in (auf) the market-place — on every side auf allen Seiten, allenthalben — on the continent — without (ohne) the Romans — owing to dank, infolge von.

some suppose them to be (*Akkus. mit Infinit.*) einige vermuten, (daß sie sind) es seien — the friends were forbidden to speak to him den Freunden war (es) verboten . . — the plant was held sacred wurde für heilig gehalten — for the purpose of trading zum Zwecke des Handels, um zu handeln — to prevent them from sending zu verhindern, daß sie schickten — the Romans had succeeded in extending den Römern war es gelungen . . (auszudehnen) les Romans avaient réussi à . . . to think of denken an — to be afraid of sich fürchten vor — running fortlaufend, unmittelbar aufeinander folgend, hintereinander.

to make war upon Krieg führen mit (to be at war with in Krieg verwickelt sein mit) — to set them against one another sie gegeneinander aufreizen — to help somebody (*Akkus.*) jemandem helfen — as the story runs wie so erzählt wird — to thank somebody danken — the so-called der (die, das) sogenannte — this made people notice them very much (dies veranlaßte die Leute, sie gar sehr zu beachten) dies zog sehr die Aufmerksamkeit der Leute auf sie — to catch sight of zufällig zu sehen bekommen — on somebody's telling him they were Angles als ihm jemand sagte, es seien

Angeln — the priest is said to have answered der Priester soll geantwortet haben — most of the German tribes die meisten der deutschen Stämme — this order was obeyed diesem Befehle wurde gehorcht, Folge geleistet, to obey an order einem Befehle gehorchen (to disobey them 60, 31) — the Christian name der Vorname, the surname (oder the family name) der Vatername.

COMPOSITION V.

King Alfred 871–901 (siehe Seite 84) — **Charlemagne** Karl der Große, König der Franken, seit 800 Kaiser, † 814 — **Edward the Confessor** Eduard der Bekenner † 1066 — **Harold** † 1066 — **William, Duke of Normandy**, von 1066 bis 1087 König von England — **Dover** in Kent (9, 25) — **Hastings** in Sussex (9, 26) — **Pevensey** in Sussex — **Senlac** in Sussex — **the Tower of London** alte feste Burg in London, an der Themse, Jahrhunderte hindurch als Staatsgefängnis benutzt, jetzt Arsenal und Ruhmeshalle — **Westminster Abbey**, die erste Kirche in London, für offizielle Feierlichkeiten des Hofes und der Nation; daselbst finden die Krönungsfeierlichkeiten statt und die Beisetzung der um Staat, Kunst, Wissenschaft usw. verdienten Männer Englands. Die Abtei ist von Eduard dem Bekenner an der Stelle einer im 7. Jahrhundert entstandenen Kirche erbaut und seitdem mehrfach erweitert worden. Westminster war früher eine außerhalb Londons liegende selbständige Ortschaft (Westminster Bridge 26, 6) — **Winchester**, 10 miles nördlich von Southampton (1, 5) — **York** an der Ouse (9, 25) in Yorkshire, die bedeutendste Stadt in Nordengland — **Normandy** die Normandie (the Normans) mit Rouen an der Seine.

COMPOSITION VI.

William Caxton führt 1476 die Buchdruckerkunst in England ein — **Gutenberg** lebt um 1450 in Mainz — **Geoffrey (Gottfried) Chaucer** † 1400, größter mittellenglischer Dichter, Verfasser der Canterbury Tales (Erzählungen der Canterbury-Pilger) — **Bruges (Brügge)** in Flanders (Flandern) — **Burgundy** Burgund — **the Times** Londoner Morgenblatt, die größte Zeitung der Erde, seit 1783 bestehend, soll einen jährlichen Reinertrag von über 100 000 £ erzielen [Gr. § 35 Anm.].

The War of the Roses (der Krieg der beiden Rosen, the Red Rose of Lancaster und the White Rose of York siehe Seite 85): die Kriege der beiden Königshäuser (1455–1471) fanden ihr Ende in der Battle (Schlacht) of Bosworth Field (1485), in welcher Richard III., der letzte König aus dem Hause York, von Henry, Earl of Richmond, besiegt wurde. Henry Richmond, der erste Tudor, bestieg darauf den Thron als Henry VII.

ZUR WIEDERHOLUNG.

A. ready 15, 4; 41, 8 bereit, fertig; readily 61, 26 bereitwillig — willing 58, 24 willens; to be willing, unwilling wollen, nicht wollen (§ 79 A. 3); willingly 61, 28 willig, gern — easy 37, 29 leicht zu machen; easily 57, 21; 64, 20 — gradual, gradually 62, 28 stufenweise, allmählich — natural 59, 36, naturally 56, 37 natürlich — general allgemein, generally 56, 18; 58, 41 gewöhnlich — usual 59, 3 gebräuchlich, gewöhnlich; usually 60, 6; unusually 30, 30 ungewöhnlich — certain bestimmt, certainly sicherlich 62, 14 — probable, probably 30, 31 wahrscheinlich — perhaps 43, 31 vielleicht.

very *adj.* der wahre, genau derselbe, gerade der 61, 34; very *adv.* sehr 38, 35; 58, 41; 56, 23; 60, 31; very much afraid gar sehr (much sehr: much

excited 34, 27, much frightened 59, 11, much interested 38, 25; — greatly astonished 55, 28 sehr; — it grieved him sorely arg, schmerzlich, sehr 66, 15.

the same (number) 60, 15 eben derselbe, genau derselbe 61, 20 (even *adv.* selbst, sogar 60, 26; 56, 20; 64, 24, even if selbst wenn) — the same as derselbe wie . . .

indeed 2, 17 in der That, truly 64, 5 fürwahr, wahrlich (it is true 58, 2 allerdings, zwar).

ever je 55, 23; 55, 31; 59, 20; never nie 20, 1; 60, 14; always 27, 5 immer, stets; still immer noch, noch immer (46, 7); already 14, 9 schon, bereits (as early as „schon“ 58, 2); one day (Ausf. der Zeit) einst, eines Tages 61, 44 (on that day an jenem Tage 55, 28) — now 43, 8; 64, 22 jetzt, nunmehr (nowadays 60, 28 heutzutage) — formerly 65, 10 früher, ehemals (earlier than 58, 31 früher [eher] als) — later 58, 9 später (in later days 62, 25) — afterwards 62, 10 hernach — soon 59, 10 bald, alsbald — often 58, 41 oft — sometimes 53, 11 zuweilen, manchmal — several times 56, 9 mehrmals — for the first time 57, 22 zum ersten Male — at that time 61, 41, in those days 67, 19 damals, zu jener Zeit (at this time 63, 22 zu dieser Zeit) — at the same time 62, 17 gleichzeitig — from that time (onwards 64, 25), since that date 56, 9, since then 55, 21 von da ab, seit damals — in the time of King A. 63, 17 — at the present day 66, 22.

first (at first § 99) . . afterwards (then, later) — only erst (only nur 57, 5; 64, 15) — at last zuletzt 27, 10; at length schließlich.

then dann, damals 64, 20; dann, darauf 56, 6; 38, 12 (for denn = *conj.*, for für = *prep.* for a moment, for some moments, for fifteen years 65, 42).

too auch 57, 4; also 38, 22 auch, ebenfalls (although, though obgleich). — everywhere 67, 11 überall (wherever überall, wo; wo auch immer 62, 24), nowhere (not anywhere) 33, 7 nirgends — nevertheless nichtsdestoweniger 66, 16 — otherwise 61, 1 sonst.

after *prep.* nach 55, 7; *conj.* 59, 10 nachdem; *adv.* nachher. — since (the conquest 55, 15; since then 55, 21) *prep.* seit; *conj.* = seitdem 55, 18 [auch kausal = da nun einmal, da ja]; *adv.* = seitdem 59, 27 — during (the dry season 49, 16) *prep.* während (while während *conj.* 55, 28; 3, 9) — because *conj.* weil 38, 26.

with mit 58, 25 (with us 34, 22 = bei uns: to stay with a person 39, 10; to stay at a place 56, 6; to stay at an hotel logieren, absteigen; to stay with (some) friends bei Bekannten zu(m Logier)besuch sein — near bei, unweit 55, 9; 58, 19; 58, 26.

among zwischen, unter; between zwischen zweien: the 3 Teutonic tribes divided the land among themselves 61, 25; between the two towers 57, 21; the two children divided the apple between them.

on account of wegen 66, 17 — owing to 62, 25 infolge, thanks to 59, 15 dank — without ohne 64, 24; 24 23; but for ohne 59, 21 — on the condition of 64, 44 unter der Bedingung, daß; on the condition that — on what condition? — in spite of trotz 59, 15.

by means of 56, 29 *mittels* (by what means 60, 18 *wodurch*; by this means, by such means, by those measures, by such efforts *hierdurch*) — in this way 63, 34 *auf diese Weise*.

for the purpose of 60, 42 *behuß*, for the sake of *um . . . willen* 58, 25 — for want of 59, 29 *mangels* — in addition to 59, 38 = besides 38, 33 *außer* — agreeably to 64, 18 *gemäß*; according to 56, 4 *gemäß*.

no sooner . . . than [*'than' nach dem Komparativ!*] 56, 41 *faum . . . so* — therefore 56, 4 *deshalb*; so *so, darum, deshalb* 61, 24 — as *da, weil* 57, 19; because *weil* 38, 36 — provided that *vorausgesetzt daß* 56, 33 — if *wenn, falls, wofern* (especially if 57, 13: *falls es sich so trifft, daß*; particularly when 60, 37 *besonders dann, wann*; when *wenn* 59, 26; *als* 59, 5, 64, 20); if *ob* 21, 2; whether *ob* (§ 86 a. U.) 22, 28, whether . . . or *ob . . . oder* 59, 28.

however *conj. wie auch immer* 57, 11 (however *jedoch adv.* 59, 10 — to such an extent that 62, 35 *dermaßen, daß*; so that 57, 20 *so daß*).

both . . . and 37, 34; 56, 41 = as well as 62, 28 *sowohl . . . als auch* — not only . . . but also 65, 36 *nicht nur . . . sondern auch* (but *aber* 59, 25; 57, 3; but *sondern* 38, 11) — as (quickly) as (possible) 59, 20 *so . . . als* (64, 12) — the (more) . . . the (more) *je . . . desto* 64, 10.

to speak to 66, 12; 18, 11; to say to 26, 3 (§ 84 c. U.), to tell some one (62, 5).

The introduction of Christianity (Gr. § 11; the conversion of the English to Christianity 61, 42) was greatly owing (Gr. § 79 U. 3) to the noble influence of the king's wife, Bertha, whom we know to have herself been already a believer (62, 28 = who is known to have herself been . . . = who was herself already . . .).

Caxton was formerly sometimes said (supposed, thought, believed) to have been the inventor of printing (65, 10; Gr. § 11), but now that art is known to have been invented in Germany before Caxton went to live at Bruges. — Leichhardt happened to be sleeping by the camp fire 59, 4 = it happened that L. was sleeping . . . — It happened that some English children were standing in the market-place 61, 43 = Some English children happened to be standing . . . — Leichhardt seems to have been eaten by the savages. — It seemed as if . . . 56, 33. —

If he waited for all his reinforcements to arrive, he would probably succeed in beating the enemy. — If he had waited for . . . , he would certainly have succeeded in . . . — If he came, I should tell him. — If he had come, I should have told him. — § 62, 13—15.

The merchant wanted to sell the boys 62, 8 = „*wollte*“ (40, 28). — William the Conqueror began to build it 55, 19. — Jackson had not finished doing his long Latin exercise yet 17, 16. —

to enter a room (17, 8), to invade a country (63, 35), to introduce into (65, 9). — to conquer a country, a people *erobern, besiegen*. — to seek to 62, 36, to strive to 63, 1, to try to 61, 25, to endeavour to 57, 6.

to delight 63, 19; to make one feel happy, gay, cheerful, glad (43, 1); to give great joy (by + *ger.* 39, 6) = *erfreuen, beglücken*.

I am delighted with 63, 19; I feel glad, happy (58, 27); it is a great joy to me (37, 9) *ich freue mich*. — I enjoy a thing 35, 32; 35, 34; 46, 28; 35, 36 *ich erfreue mich an* (to make one enjoy a thing 42, 37).

to satisfy *befriedigen*; to be (to feel, to rest 61, 37) satisfied; to content oneself with 59, 24. — to gratify a person *durch Erfüllung eines Wunsches erfreuen, beglücken, zufrieden stellen*; to ~ a desire 62, 14 *ein lang gehegtes Verlangen befriedigen* — to discourage 59, 26 *entmutigen*; to be (to feel) discouraged 59, 26. — to grieve 66, 15; to make one feel sad 58, 15; sorry 26, 14; 24, 8; to make one feel angry 63, 33 = *betrüben, verdrießen, verbittern*.

It is dangerous (59, 25) to neglect a thing [not to do a thing] = there is danger in neglecting a thing [in neglecting to do a thing, in not doing a thing] — There is danger in neglecting one's own self-defence 61, 28 — There is danger in delay 59, 21.

B. Synonyms (§ 128): — usual 59, 3: common 59, 39 — almost 58, 5: nearly 57, 37 — at last 57, 11: at length 57, 19 — low 61, 20: mean 65, 38 — high 38, 7; elevated 57, 27 — used to 60, 41: would 57, 6 — fierce 61, 21: savage 59, 11 — to look at 60, 11: to gaze at 68, 20 — to advance 59, 20: to proceed 58, 29 — to live 65, 14; to reside 60, 6 — same 61, 30: even 56, 30.

C. Opposites (§ 129): — *cheap* 37, 38: dear 64, 13; 37, 24 — *large* 25, 11: small 30, 34 — *early* 30, 36: late 14, 14 — *wide* 35, 6: narrow 30, 25 — *in front of* 35, 7: behind 59, 12 — *old* 2, 22: new 34, 31 — *quick* 35, 6; *fast* 73, 7: slow 2, 7; 31, 28 — *long* 17, 16; short 34, 36 — *soft* 20, 24; hard 2, 34 — *right* 27, 30: wrong 26, 35 — *high* 38, 7: low 61, 20 — *day* 20, 35: night 13, 26 — *hot* 20, 26: cold 20, 28 — *to obey* 62, 21: to disobey 60, 31 — *usual* 59, 3: unusual 30, 30 — *light* 62, 2: dark 62, 3 — *good* 3, 14: bad 21, 1 — *to praise* 63, 43: to blame 61, 25.

D. Correlatives (§ 130): — *to teach* 60, 25: to learn 17, 16 — *teacher*: pupil — *parents* 58, 32 (parent = 1. father 3, 2 — 2. = mother 2, 22): child 3, 2 — *king* 27, 22: subject 65, 38 — *land* 55, 19: water 24, 30 — *cause* *Grund, Ursache* 26, 23: effect 62, 27 — *church* 56, 27: state 56, 10 — *flesh* 58, 40: blood 77, 32 — *hungry* 43, 36: thirsty 30, 34 — *nature* 60, 30: art 65, 11 — *town* 20, 35: country 38, 1 — *vowel* 10, 23: consonant 10, 27 — *north* 9, 33: south 10, 4 — and so on.

E. Homonyms = words agreeing in sound, but differing in meaning: — air 43, 35: heir 63, 9 — b 1, 34: be 2, 36 — bad 21, 1: bade 62, 17 — by 3, 12: good-bye 13, 27: buy 55, 19 — Britain 9, 19: Briton 61, 3 — c 1, 34: to see 17, 21: see *Bischofsitz* 64, 30: sea 9, 31; c's: sees: seas: to seize 65, 31 — to die *sterben* 44, 4: die *Würfel* 62, 20 — for *für* 17, 32: for *denn* 30, 34: four 10, 18 — gentleman: gentlemen — hand-some 38, 33: hansom 38, 12 — here 1, 15: to hear 24, 27 — i 1, 34: I 13, 2: eye 14, 9 — to last *dauern* 64, 5: last *legt* 14, 13 — lay *lag* 56, 20: lay *lege* § 71d — to leave *verlassen* 18, 6: leave *Erlaubniß* 21, 3 — leaves *verläßt* 30, 37: leaves *Blätter* 66, 14 — March 10, 12: to march 63, 41 — May 10, 13: may 44, 35 — Miss 54, 23: to miss 30, 24 — to meet 13, 31: meat 20, 27 — no *nein* 17, 25: no *kein* 2, 16: know 17, 32 — night 13, 26: knight 63, 41 — new 10, 1: knew 17, 32 — o 1, 34: owe 65, 22 — our 20, 33: hour 21, 3 — led *führte*: lead *Blei* — or *oder* 20, 28: oar 48, 15 — rest *Rest* 35, 2: rest *Rast* 75, 1 — to

row rudern 48,12: row Reihe 27,11; rows — right recht 3,12: to write 17,28 — road 61,10: rowed 50,25: rode (to ride) 63,41 — r 1,36: are 13,7 — past vorbei (nach) 14,12: passed 20,25 — sun 2,15: son 38,38 — strait Meerenge 58,1: straight strada, gerade 24,23 — t 1,36: tea 38,21 — too 34,32: two 10,18 — through 43,11: threw (to throw) 14,14 — were 24,32: ware 25,5 — won 60,27: one 6,32 — way 2,20: to weigh 55,40 — their 17,9: there 2,20 — would 21,3: wood 38,8 — y's 1,38: wise 62,41.

F. Pronunciation of words which do not agree in sound (See 51,9—12; 11,11—12,6; Supplement No. 47 h, page 115): — Christ, Christian, christianity, Christmas — wise, wisdom — hero, heroine (§ 9), heroic, heroism — nation, national — nature, natural — to know, knowledge — to dine, dinner — to say, says, said.

bad, bed, but, put — had, head — man, men — than, then — cattle, Vieh, kettle Kessel — called, cold — caused, coast — bought, boat — walk, awoke — cab, cap 7,19 — dog, dock — beg, back — thing, think — among, a monk — sad, sat, set, said, that — laid, late — led, let — stayed, state — weighed, (hundred) weight — ride, right — side, sight — road, rode; wrote — broad, brought — food, foot — feet, fit — of 7,26; off (§ 107,6) — lived lebte, wohnte; lift Fahrstuhl — plays, place — fears, fierce — his, to hiss (§ 4) — used to pflegte; used gebraucht — pens, pence (7,21; § 2) — one's (§ 43 a), ones, once 6,32 — age 56,43; h 1,34 — cheap, sheep — vice 62,19: wise 62,41 — wide, white — though, so — although, also — they, say — fourth, force — path, pass — growth 3,5: grows 2,22 — useful 38,35: youthful 63,10.

G. Word-formation (53,5—9; 54,7—38).

1. Families of Words (53,45): — *born* geboren 66,3 (to bear; birth 58,18) — to admit zugeben, als richtig anerkennen 65,11 (to permit 60,33; to promise 37,36) — to contain enthalten (to obtain 64,21; to entertain 55,28; to maintain 63,13; to attain erreichen 66,23) — *fruit* Frucht, Obst 131,39 (fruitful 58,13; fruitless 59,30) — *governance* Übung (Führung) des Herrscheramtes, Regierung 65,37 (governor 60,5; to govern 166,34, government 72,35) — *history* Geschichte (story Erzählung, Geschichte 61,42; historian 60,18; historical 55,25) — to introduce into einführen in 65,14 (introduction 65,9; to produce vorführen, hervorbringen 66,15) — *important* wichtig 65,8 (importance Wichtigkeit 55,25; report Bericht, Senjur 37,26; to support unterstützen 63,36) — *monastery* Münster, Kloster 65,19 (Westminster; monk Mönch 65,24) — usw.

2. Prefixes (53,34—41):

ante-: — ~room Vorzimmer — to ~date vordatieren;

anti-: — ~slavery Abneigung gegen die Sklaverei — ~social gesellschaftsfeindlich — ~corn-law 78,28;

be-: — to ~speak bestellen — to ~head enthaupten — ~loved 55,30 — to ~hold 68,11 — to ~lieve 63,16;

de-: — ~feat Vernichtung, Niederlage 72,42; 73,35 (feat Tat) — to ~compose zersetzen — to ~throne entthronen (throne Thron);

- dis-*: — to ~ obey 60, 31; ~ obedient ungehorsam — ~ honour 75, 22 — to ~ appear 59, 35 — ~ aster 56, 40 — to ~ courage 59, 26 — to ~ turb 66, 1 — to ~ pel 68, 4 — to ~ please mißfallen — to ~ like nicht mögen — ~ ease Unbehagen, Krankheit 69, 41 — to ~ prove 111, 2 — to ~ sect 169, 4 zergliedern;
- di-*: — to ~ vide 58, 8 — to ~ spirit 68, 18 — to ~ vest 66, 39 — ~ vorce 81, 38;
- en-*: — to ~ joy Freude haben an, genießen (to enjoy oneself sich amüsieren) 35, 36; 46, 28 — to ~ large 63, 5 — to ~ rich 66, 41 — to ~ trust 56, 36 — to ~ quire 83, 42;
- em-*: — to ~ blazon 68, 26 — to ~ brace 68, 40 — to ~ ploy 65, 15 — to ~ bark sich einschiffen (bark, Boot, Barke);
- ex-*: — ex-king, ex-mayor;
- mis-*: — ~ take 17, 25 — ~ print 66, 16 — ~ fortune Mißgeschick — ~ conduct 74, 16 — ~ conception 68, 35;
- non-*: — non-finite, infinit (§ 69 a) — ~ existence 124, footnote 3 — ~ conductor schlechter Leiter — ~ commissioned officer (Offizier ohne Patent =) Unteroffizier — ~ conformist Dissident;
- post-*: — to ~ date nachdatieren — ~ mortem examination Leichenschau — ~ graduate — ~ script Nachschrift;
- pre-*: — ~ historic vorgefichtlich — pre-Raphaelite 78, 18 — ~ paid vorausbezahlt 120, 28 — to ~ arrange;
- pro-*: — pro-Boer — pro-Russian;
- re-*: — to ~ turn 68, 29; 81, 23 — ~ action 169, 2 — to ~ vise 126, 18 — to ~ touch 126, 16 — ~ viver 164, 15 — to ~ cast 126, 18 — to ~ plenish 155, 15 — to ~ store 156, 23 — Renaissance = Renaissance 155, 11 — to ~ kindle 81, 1 — reinforcement 64, 26 — to ~ write — to ~ build — to ~ enter wieder betreten;
- sub-*: — to ~ divide in Unterabteilungen zerlegen, zerfallen — to ~ let weiter vermieten, in Untermiete geben — subtenant 64, 44;
- un-*: — ~ able unfähig — ~ fortunate 59, 33, ~ happy 70, 42 — ~ heedful 81, 2 — ~ accented 12, 7; ~ stressed 12, 7 — ~ seen 30, 32 — ~ usual 30, 30 — ~ certainty 59, 30 — to ~ bind aufbinden — to ~ do ungeschehen machen, verderben, aufmachen (öffnen).
3. Suffixes (54, 1—6):
- ar*: — schol ~ — begg ~ Bettler — li ~ Lügner;
- er*: — fish ~ — mill ~ — teach ~ — think ~ — book-bind ~ — travell ~ — sinn ~ Sünder — hatt ~ Gutmacher — lov ~;
- or*: — conquer ~ Eroberer — sail ~ Seemann;
- en*: — to slack ~ erschaffen (langsam fahren 34, 25) — to black ~ schwärzen — to fast ~ festmachen (77, 38) — earth ~ irden;
- ness*: — good ~ 63, 34 — busi ~ 65, 26 — happi ~ Glück — idle ~ Faulheit — clever ~ Geschicklichkeit — great ~ — sick ~ — dark ~ 156, 28;
- ish*: — Engl ~ — Ir ~ — Scott ~ — Span ~ — child ~ kindlich — old ~ altlich — fool ~ töricht 70, 12 — gray ~ etwas grau (= somewhat gray) — black ~ schwärzlich;

- ize (54, 6): — to anglic ~ (= to make English in form or character, to english) — to german ~ — to civil ~ — to tyrann ~ — to apologize ~ um Entschuldigung bitten;
- ist (54, 6): — philolog ~ Philologe — econom ~ Volkswirt — tobacco ~ Tabak- (Zigarren)händler;
- ism (54, 6): American ~ — egot ~ Egoismus — critic ~ Kritizismus;
- dom: — wis ~ — king ~ — duke ~ — free ~;
- ful: — beauti ~ — joy ~ — hope ~ — aw ~ — power ~;
- less: — hope ~ — use ~ — fruit ~ — tooth ~ — power ~;
- ship: — friend ~ — hard ~ — ruler ~ — lord ~ — lady ~ — penman ~;
- y: dirt ~ — dust ~ staubig — blood ~ — craft ~ — ston ~ steinig —
ros ~ rosig — frost ~ — foggy ~ — wintr ~ — worth ~ — angr ~ —
heav ~ — happ ~ — nois ~ — bab ~ (babe) — donke ~ Esel —
Charlie (Charley) — flower ~ — savour ~ saftig;
- ly: — first ~ — second ~ — dai ~ — week ~ — sure ~ — distinct ~ —
live ~, love ~;
- ation: — deriv ~ (to derive) — condemn ~ (to condemn) — flirt ~ (to
flirt) — salut ~ (to salute) — exclam ~ (to exclaim).
- able: — remark ~ — blam ~ — ami ~ — toler ~ — navig ~ — reli ~;
- ate: (54, 5; § 7 Anm.): — associ ~ Genosse; sich zugesellen, sich verbinden —
to associate with umgehen (verkehren) mit;
- age: — cour ~ Mut — voy ~ Meerfahrt — leaf ~ Blattwerk;
- al: buri ~ Begräbnis — funer ~ Leichenbegängnis — tri ~ Prüfung — betroth ~
Verlobung — withdraw ~ Entziehung — reviv ~ Wiederbelebung —
renew ~ Erneuerung — approv ~ Billigung — arriv ~ Ankunft;
- ment: — govern ~ Regierung — parlia ~ — apart ~ — employ ~ Be-
schäftigung;
- ed: (§ 70 a. A.): — boot ~ gestiefelt — feather ~;
- ing: — dwell ~ Wohnung — liv ~ Lebensunterhalt, Pfarre, Pfründe —
writ ~ Schrift — charm ~ entzückend;
- let: — book ~ Büchlein — brook ~ Bächlein — rivu ~ Flüsschen — ham ~
Dörflein — leaf ~ Blättchen;
- ify: — to beaut ~ verschönern — to french ~ — französisch machen.

4. Hybrids.

Compound words or Derivatives of mixed origin (in which English [or Germanic] and Romanic [or Greek] elements are compounded) are called hybrids (Bastarde).

Germanic words with Romanic prefixes: — to recall zurückrufen — perhaps vielleicht — subway Tunnel.

Romanic words with Germanic prefixes: — because weil — unfortunate unglücklich.

Germanic words with Romanic suffixes: — goddess Göttin.

Romanic words with Germanic (English) suffixes: — beautiful, useful, usefulness, dukedom, fruitless, quietly, chiefly.

Alphabetical Glossary

to Compositions I to XX and to all other pieces not contained in the Sketches.

abattoir = slaughter-house *abätjör*

abbey Abtei *abi*

abbot Abt *abot*

abbreviate abkürzen, abbreviation

Abkürzung *abriviēt, ābriviē'sh*

abdicate abdanfen *abdikēt*

Aberdeen (Schottland) *ābrādn*

Aberystwyth (Wales) *ābrī'stūit*

abide bleiben, sich aufhalten *abāid*

ability Geschicklichkeit; **able** fähig, imstande *abi'li'ti ēibit*

abode Aufenthalt *abōud*

abolish abschaffen; **abolition** Abschaffung *abō'liš, abō'lišn*

Aboukir Bay (Ägypten) *ābukīr bēi*
about in Überfluß vorhanden sein *abāund*

about um, herum; in betreff *abāut*

above *adv.* oben; *prep.* über *abov*

abroad im (ins) Ausland *abrōd*

abrupt abgebrochen, steil *abrō'pt*

absent abwesend *ab'sent*

absolute unumſchränkt; **absolution** Loſſprechung von Kirchenbußen, Ablaß *ab'solut, ab'solut'sh*

absorption Verſunkenſein (in) *ab'sōr'pſh'n*

abstain ſich enthalten *ab'stēin*

abstract *ab'strakt*

abstruse verworren *ab'strūs*

absurdity Unſinn *ab'sōr'diti*

abundance Reichthum *ab'undāns*

abuse Mißbrauch *ab'ūs*

Abydos *abāids*

academy Akademie; **academic** *akæ'dēmi, akadē'mik*

Acadia Neu-Schottland (Provinz von Kanada) *akē'diā*

accede zur Regierung kommen *ak'sēd*

accelerate beſchleunigen *ak'sē'brēt*

accent Betonung; **-ual** afgentuierend; **-uate** betonen *ak'sent, ak'sent'uat, ak'sēnt'uat*

accept annehmen; **-ance** Annahme *āk'sē'pt*

access Zugang; **accession** Thronbeſteigung *āk'sē's, āk'sē'sh*

accidence Formenlehre *āk'sid'ns*

accident Unfall; **accidental** zufällig *āk'sid'nt, āk'sid'nt'l [aklā'm'tāiz]*

acclimatize afflimatifieren

accompany begleiten *āk'om'pni*

accomplish vollenden; **-ment** Vollendung, Erfüllung *āk'om'plish*

accord gewähren; **-ance** Übereinstimmung; **-ing** to gemäß, nach; **-ingly** demgemäß *ākōrd*

account Bericht, Betracht, Bedeutung; **on ~ of** wegen; **to ~ (for)** begründen, erklären *ākāunt*

accumulate (ſich) aufhäufen *āk'wū-*

accurate genau *āk'kurel [mū'lit]*

accuse anlagen *āk'wūz*

accustom gewöhnen *āk'v'stōm*

Achaian achaiſch *ākē'i'an*

ache Schmerz, Weh; **ſchmerzen** *āk*

achieve vollenden *ākš'v*

Achilles *ākī'liz*

acid Säure *ē'sid*

acknowledge anerkennen; **acknowledgment** Anerkennung *āk'nō'ledž*

acquaint oneself ſich bekannt machen; **-ance** Bekanntschaft *āk'wēnt*

acquire erwerben; **acquisition** Erwerbung *āk'kū'i, āk'kū'izi'sh*

acquit freisprechen *āk'wīt*

acre Flächenmaß = 40,467 Ar *ē'kr*

across *adv.* hinüber; *prep.* quer über *āk'rōs*

act Handlung, Tat, Ausföhrung, Geſetzesbeſtimmung; **handeln**, einwirken; **-ion** Handlung, Geſecht, Wirkung; **-ive** tätig, regſam; **-ive voice** tätige Zuſtandsform, Aktiv; **-ivity** Regſamkeit; **-or**, **-ress** Schaufpieler, **-in**; **-ual**

wirklich (Wirklichkeit), *ækt, æktiv, ækšən, ækti'viti, æ'ktšən*
 A. D. (Vocab. 33, 21) *ē dī*
 Adam Adam *æ'dəm*
 adapt anpassen *ædæpt*
 add hinzufügen; -ition Hinzufügung, Zusatz; -itional hinzukommend, Zuschlagss-, *æd, ædi'sh(ə)*
 Addison (S. 161) *æ'di'sn*
 address (sich mündlich oder schriftlich) richten an; -ee Adressat, Empfangsberechtigter *æ'dres, ædres'i*
 Adelaide *æ'deləid*
 Aden *æ'dən* [*æ'dikəʊt*]
 adequate angemessen, zulänglich
 adjacent anstoßend, angrenzend, zusammenstehend *ædʒə'snt*
 adjectival adjektivisch; adjective Eigenschaftswort *ædʒek'tivəl, æ'dʒek'tiv*
 adjunct Beifügung *æ'dʒʊŋkt*
 administer verwalten; administration Verwaltung; administrative *ædmi'nistə, ædmi'nistrə'i'shən, ædmi'nistrə'tiv*
 admiral Admiral *æd'mərəl*
 admiration Bewunderung; admire bewundern *ædmi'rei'shən, ædmā'ər*
 admit zugeben, einräumen, zulassen; admittance Zulassung, -tritt *ædmit*
 ado Lärm *ædū*
 adopt annehmen; -ion Aufnahme in ein verwandtschaftliches Verhältnis *ædɒ'pt, ædɒ'pʃən*
 adoration Anbetung *ædɒ'rei'shən*
 adorn schmücken *ædɔ:n*
 adultery Ehebruch *ædɒ'l'təri*
 advance Vorrücken, Fortschritt; vorrücken, vorwärtsbringen *ædvəns*
 advantage Vorteil; -ous vorteilhaft *ædvəntədʒ, ædvəntər'dʒəs*
 advent Ankunft *ædvənt*
 adventure Abenteuer; adventurous abenteuerlich, kühn *ædven'tʃərəs*
 adverb Umstandswort; adverbial adverbial *ædvərb, ædvərb'iəl*
 adversary Gegner *ædvərsəri*
 adversative *ædvərsə'tiv*
 adversity Unglück *ædvərsiti*
 advertisement Ankündigung, Anzeige, Annonce *ædvərtizmənt*

advice Rat; advise raten; adviser Berater *ædvəis, ædvəiz(ər)*
 advocate verteidigen *ædvə'keɪt*;
 aërial Luft- *æ'iəriəl* ~ Anwalt
 aero- Luft-; -naut Luftschiffer; -nautics; -plane Flugzeug *ɛ'rənəl, ɛ'rənɒ'tiks, -plæn*
 afar ferne, weithin *ə'fər*
 affair Geschäft, Angelegenheit *ə'feər*
 affect berühren, zur Schau tragen; -tion Zuneigung, Liebe; -ionate in liebevoller Gesinnung zugetan *ə'fekʃn*
 affirm behaupten; -ative bejahend
 affix an-, beifügen *ə'fiks* [*ə'fɔ:m*]
 afflict heimsuchen *ə'flikt*
 afford gewähren, bieten; es er-schwingen *ə'fɔ:d*
 afiehd auf dem Feld, ins Feld *ə'fi:ld*
 afraid bange *ə'freɪd*
 Africa Afrika; -n afrikanisch *ə'fri:kə*
 after *adj.* später; *prep.* nach; *conj.* nachdem; -noon Nachmittag *ɑ:ftər, -nū'n*
 afterwards hernach *ɑ:ftə'wɔ:dz*
 again wieder; -st gegen *ə'geɪn*
 age Alter, Zeitalter; -d bejahrt *ɪ'dʒ*
 agency Agentur; agent Agent *ɛ'rdʒənsi, ɪ'dʒənt*
 aggrandizement Vergrößerung *ə'grændizmənt*
 aggression Angriff *æ'grɛsən*
 aghast entsetzt *ə'gəst*
 ago her (vergangen), heute vor *ə'gəʊ*
 agree on übereinstimmen; -with zu-sagen, zuträglich sein; -to ein-willigen; -ment Abkommen, Ver-trag; -ably to gemäß *ə'grɪ*
 Agricola (röm. Feldherr, † 93) *ə'grɪ:kələ*
 aground auf Grund *ə'graʊnd*
 agricultural landwirtschaftlich; agri-culture Landwirtschaft *ə'grɪkʊlt-tʃərəl*
 aid Hilfe; unterstützen *ɪd*
 ail schmerzen *ɪl*
 aim Ziel; at zielen, streben nach *ɪm*
 air Luft; Melodie; -y lustig; -ship Luftschiff *ɛər, ɛ'ri*
 akin verwandt *ə'ki:n*

alarm Lärm, Alarm; to ~ alarmieren)
 alas! ach! leider! *aläs* [*alärm*]
 Albania (Balkan) *atbē'nä*
 Albans *äb'nz*
 Albany (Schottland) *äb'n*
 Albert Albert *ä'tbət*
 Albion England *älb'n*
 Albyn Schottland *ä'b'n*
 alcoholic alkoholisch *ätk'hö'lik*
 Alcoran Koran *ä'kərän*
 alder Erle *ä'dər*
 Aldershot (Hampshire) *ä'dər'st*
 ale Bier *ä't*
 alertness Flinkheit *äl'rt'nəs* [*dr'n*]
 Alexandrine Alexandrine *älgzæ'n-*
 Alfred Alfred *ä'frəd*
 Algernon (S. 144) *ä'ldzə'nən*
 Alhambra *äthæ'mbra*
 to alight herab-, aus-, absteigen *äl'rt*
 alike in gleicher Weise; gleich *äl'rk*
 alive am Leben *ä'liv*
 alkali *ä'tk'li*
 all all, ganz; ~ the um so; ~ but
 beinahe; not at ~ gar nicht *ät*
 allegorical sinnbildlich; allegory
 Gleichnis, Allegorie; allegorize
älegə'rikət, *ä'lē'gəri*
 Alleluia Halleluja *ä'lä'lä*
 alleviate erleichtern *äl'i'veit*
 alley Gasse *ä'li*
 alliance Bündnis; allied verwandt,
 ally Bundesgenosse *äl'iəns*, *äl'i*
 allow erlauben *äləu*
 allude anspielen; allusion Anspielung
äləd, *älüz'n*
 almanac Almanach *ätmənäk*
 almighty allmächtig *ätmä'ti*
 almost fast, beinahe *ätmō'st*
 alms Almosen *äms*
 aloft hoch oben *äləft*
 alone allein *äləun*
 along entlang, einher; ~side an der
 Seite *älən*, *älə'nsä'id*
 aloud laut *äləud*
 Alps Alpen *ätps*
 alphabetical alphabetisch *ätf'bē'tikəl*
 already schon *ä're'di*
 Alsatia Elsaß *ätsä'r'sä*
 also auch *ä'so* [*ä'tər*, *ä'tərə'sən*]
 alter ändern; ~ation Änderung

alternate (ab)wechselnd; alternative
 Wahl zwischen zwei Fällen *ättər'nēt*,
ättər'nätiv
 although obgleich *ät'dəu*
 altogether insgesamt, ganz und gar
ätte'ge'dər
 Alton See *ätən lək*
 aluminium Aluminium *älbumi'nium*
 always immer *ät'weiz*
 amass anhäufen *ämäs*
 ambassador Gesandter *ämbə'sədər*
 ambiguity Zweideutigkeit *ämbig'ü'iti*
 ambition Ehrgeiz; ambitious ehr-
 geizig *ämbi'sn*, *ämbi'sps*
 amen Amen *ä'me'n*, *ä'me'n*
 America Amerika; ~n amerikanisch
äme'rikä
 amiable liebenswert *ä'miəbl*
 amicable freundschaftlich *ä'mikəbl*
 amid mitten in; ~st mitten in *amid*
 amity gutes Einvernehmen *ä'miti*
 ammunition Munition, Schießbedarf,
 Kriegsvorrat *ämjuni'sn*
 among unter *əməŋ*
 amount Betrag, Menge; sich be-
 laufen auf *əmāunt*
 ample weit, groß; prächtig; amplify
 erweitern *əmpl*, *əmplifai*
 Amsterdam *ə'mstərde'm*
 amuse ergötzen; ~ment Belustigung
əmjəz [*lit'kət*]
 analytics, analytical *ən'li'tiks*,
 analysis Zerlegung, Bergliederung;
 analyze auflösen, zerlegen *mæ'lis*,
ən'läiz
 anapaest *ənəpest*, *~estik*
 anarchy *ənərki*
 ancestor Vorfahre; ancestry Vor-
 fahrenschaft, Ahnen *ənsə'stər*
 anchor Anker *əŋkər* [*vin'snt*]
 ancient alt, ehemalig; the ~s die Alten
 Andrew Andreas *ə'ndrə*
 anew von neuem *ənü*
 angel Engel; ~like engelgleich *ə'ndzəl*,
ə'ndzəlläik
 Angle anglisch; the Angles die
 Angeln *əŋgt*
 Anglesey (Insel) *ə'ŋglsi* [*ə'ŋgliä*]
 East Anglia (altengl. Königreich) *ist*
 anglicize anglisieren *ə'ŋglisäiz*

Anglo-Saxon angelsächsisch *aenglo-*
 angry ärgerlich *aengri* [*sæ'ksn*]
 animal Tier *æ'nimət*
 animate beleben *æ'nim'eit*
 ankle Knöchel *ænkɪt*
 Anne Anna *æn*
 anniversary Jahres-, Geburtstag
ænivɜ'səri
 announce ankündigen *ænəʊns*
 annoy plagen; ~ed verdrießlich *ænəi*
 annual jährlich *æ'njuəl*
 anonymous ungenannt, anonym
ənɔ'niməs
 answer Antwort *ɑnsər*
 antarctic dem Nordpol entgegengesetzt;
æntər'ktik [*æntɜ'sɪ'dəntɪ*]
 antecedent vorangehend, Bordersatz
 anterior (to) früher (als); vorher-
 gehend *æntiəriər*
 anteroom Vorzimmer *æ'ntrəm*
 anthem Wechselchorgesang, Hymne
æ'nθəm
 anthology Blumenlese *ænθə'lɔ'dʒi*
 Anthony *æ'nθni*
 anticipation Vorwegnahme; by ~
 im voraus *æntisɪp'eɪʃn*
 anti- gegen-; ~corn - law - league
 Verein gegen das (Peelsche) Korn-
 gesetz 1842; ~foreign fremden-
 feindlich; antislavery Antisflaverei
æ'nti, æntislæ'vəri
 antiquity Altertum *ænti'kɪti*
 Antony Antonius *æ'ntni*
 antonym Ausdruck für das Gegen-
 teil *æ'ntɪnim*
 anyyl Amboß *æ'nvɪt*
 any irgend; ~body irgend jemand;
 ~thing irgend etwas; ~where
 irgendwo *eni*
 apart abseits, getrennt *əpɑrt*
 apartment Wohnung *pɑrt'mənt*
 ape Affe *ep*
 aphorism Denkpruch *æ'fɔrɪzəm*
 apologize um Entschuldigung bitten
æpɔ'lɔ'dʒaɪz
 apostle Apostel *əpɔst*
 apostrophe Apostroph *əpɔ'strofi*
 apparatus Vorrichtung, Apparat
əpə'reɪtəs
 apparel Kleidung, Tracht *əpərət*

apparent anscheinend, sichtbar *əpərənt*
 appeal Berufung; Berufung einlegen
əpiɪt
 appear erscheinen; ~ance Erscheinung
əpiər; əpiərəns
 appellation Benennung *əpɪleɪʃn*
 append anhängen *əpend*; ~ix An-
 appetite Glust *ə'pitait* [*hang*]
 applaud beklatschen, Beifall klatschen,
 loben *əplɔd*
 apple Apfel *æpt*
 application Anwendung *əplikə'eɪʃn*
 apply anwenden; to sich wenden
 an *əplai*
 appoint ernennen; ~ment Ernennung,
 Anstellung; Verabredung *əpɔɪnt*
 appreciable abschätzbar, merklich;
 appreciate voll schätzen; appre-
 ciation Wertschätzung *əpri'siəbi,*
əpri'si'eɪt
 apprentice Lehrlinge; ~ship Lehr-
 zeit *əprentɪs*
 appropriate angemessen *əprəʊ'priət*
 apricot Aprikose *ə'pri:kət*
 approach sich nähern *əprəʊtʃ*
 approve billigen; approval Billigung
əpruv
 apt geneigt *æpt*
 aquatic Wasser *əkwi'etɪk*
 Araby Arabien; Arabian *ə'ræbi,*
ərə'biən
 arch Bogen *ɑrts*
 archaic altertümlich; archaism
arkə'ɪk, ər'keɪzəm
 archangel Erzengel; archbishop
 Erzbischof; archduke Erzherzog
ər'kɛɪ'ndʒəl, ɑrtsbi'sɔp, ɑrtsdʉ'k
 archer Bogenschütze; ~y ~schießen *ɑrtsər*
 architect Erbauer *ər'kitɪkt*; ~ure
 Baufunst
 archives Urkundenammlung *ər'kɑ:vɪz*
 arctic zum Nordpol gehörig; ~circle
 nördlicher Polarfreis *ər'ktɪk*
 Ardennes *ər'dənz*
 ardent glühend *ədənt*
 area vertiefter Vorraum, Lichtraum;
 Flächeninhalt *eriə*
 argue den Schluß ziehen *ər'gʉ*
 arise aufstehen, entstehen *əraɪz*
 aristocracy *ərɪstə'krəsi*

Aristotle Aristoteles (griech. Philosoph, † 322 v. Chr.) *æristotl*
 arithmetic Rechnen *ariθmētik*
 Arkwright (Erfinder der Spinnmaschine, † 1792) *ærkräit*
 arm Arm *arm*
 arm Waffe; ~bewaffnen; Armada Armada; armour(y) Rüstung;
 army Heer *arm, ærmēr'də, ærmər, ærmi*
 Arnold (S. 144) *ær'nəld*
 around rundum *ærəund*
 arouse aufwecken *ærəuz*
 arrange an-, einrichten; ~ment Einrichtung *ærəndz*
 array Reihe, Ordnung *ærēi*
 arrest anhalten, festnehmen *ær'est*
 arrival Ankunft; arrive at ankommen an *ærəivəl, ærəiv*
 arrow Pfeil *ær'rou*
 arsis Hebung *ær'sis*
 art Kunst; artificial gekünstelt; artificiality Künstlichkeit; artillery Artillerie; artisan Kunsthandwerker; artist Künstler; artistic künstlerisch *ært, ærti'fisl, ærti'ləri, ærtizæn, ærtist, ærtistik*
 artery Pulsader, Hauptkanal *ærtəri*
 Arthur (Name) *ærþər*
 article Artikel *ærtikl*
 as it were gleichsam; as to in Bezug auf
 ascend bez-, aufsteigen; ascension Himmelfahrt; ascent Aufstieg *æsen'd, æsen'sn, æsent*
 ascribe zuschreiben *æskrāib*
 ash Asche *æš*
 ashamed beschämt *æšəimd*
 Asia Asien; ~Minor Klein-; Asiatic asiatisch *æ'siə mænər, æsiæ'tik*
 aside beiseite, abseits *æsəid*
 ask for bitten um *æsk*
 asleep schlafend *æslp*
 aspect das Hinschauen, Ausblick, Richtung *æ'spekt*
 aspiration Bestrebung *æspirē'sn*
 ass (= donkey) Esel *æs*
 assault Angriff; assailable angreifbar *æsəlt, æser'leib*
 assemble versammeln; assemblage

Versammlung; assembly Versammlung *æsembt, æsembli*
 assent Zustimmung *æsent*
 assert behaupten; ~ion Behauptung; [nachdrückliches Eintreten für eine Sache, die bestritten oder angegriffen ist:] Verteidigung *æsərt, æsərt'sn*
 assign zuweisen *æsəin* [*æsərt'sn*]
 assist helfen, unterstützen; ~ance Unterstützung, Hilfe; ~ant Helfer, Gehilfe *æsistəns, æsistənt*
 associate (sich) zugefellen *æsəu'siēit*
 assume übernehmen *æsju'm*
 assure versichern; ~dly sicherlich Assurance *æsjuə'riə* [*æsjuə'li*]
 Assyria *æs'i'riə* [*æsjuə'li*]
 asterisk Sternchen (*) *æ'strisk*
 assure versichern *æsjuə* [*æsto'nis*]
 astonish in Staunen versetzen }
 astronomer Astronom; astronomical astronomisch; astronomy Astro-
 nomie, Himmelskunde *æstro'nəmər, æstrə'nə'mikəl, æstro'nəmi*
 at all überhaupt; at present jetzt; at once zugleich, zugleich at once
 atheism Atheismus *æ'piəzəm* [einig]
 Athenian athenisch; Athens Athen *æpi'nin, æ'piz*
 Atlantic 10, 2
 atlas Atlas *æt'ləs*
 atmosphere Atmosphäre *æt'məsfiər*
 Atreides (Atrides) *ætrədiz*
 attach to anheften, anfügen, befestigen an; haften an, verknüpft sein mit; attached adj. zugetan, ergeben *ætə'ts*
 attack Angriff; angreifen *ætæk*
 attain erreichen *ætein*; ~ment Leistung
 attempt Versuch; versuchen *ættempt*
 attend anwesend sein, bewohnen, begleiten; to sorgen für, besorgen; ~ance Aufwartung, Dienst; attention Aufmerksamkeit *ætend, æten'sn*
 attire Kleidung, Aufputz *ætä'ər*
 attitude Stellung, Haltung *ætitud*
 attribute beigelegtes Merkmal; zuweisen (S. 281); attributive beilegend *ætribjut, tu ætri'bjut, ætri'bjutiv*
 Auckland 10, 5
 aught irgend etwas *ət*

august erhaben, hehr *əɡv'st*
 August *ə'ɡʌst*
 Augusta, Augustine Augustin;
 Augustus August *əɡv'stə, -tən, -us*;
 Augustan augusteisch
 aunt Tante *ənt*
 Ausonia (= Italy) *əʊsə'niə*
 austerity Strenge, Rauheit *ə'ste'ri'ti*
 Australia Australien, Australian)
 Austria Österreich *ə'stri:ə* [*ə'strei'li:ə*]
 author Urheber, Verfasser; ~ity ge-
 setzmäßige Gewalt, Behörde, Macht,
 Ansehen; ~ship Urheberschaft; ize
 ermächtigen *ə'pɔ:, ə'pɔ:'rɪtɪ, ə'pɔ:'rɪz*
 autobiographical autobiographisch,
 ~biography Autobiographie, ~mo-
 bile *ə'təʊiə'græ'fɪkəl, -bəiə'græ'fɪ,*
ə'tə'məʊbɪl
 autonomous selbstregierend *ə'tɔ'nəməs*
 autumn Herbst *ə'tʌm*
 auxiliary Hilfs- *ə'ɡzi'liəri*
 avail nützen; onself of sich zu nütze
 machen; ~able brauchbar, gültig
ə'vei'əbl
 avenue Zugang, breite Straße *ə'venju*
 average Durchschnitt *ə'verɪdʒ*
 avoid vermeiden *ə'vɔɪd*
 Avon (Fluß) *ə'vɒn*
 await erwarten *ə'weɪt*
 awake wach *ə'weɪk*
 to awaken auf-erwecken *ə'weɪkən*
 aware gewahr *ə'weə*
 away weg *ə'weɪ*
 awe Ehrfurcht *ə*
 awful schrecklich *ə'fʊl*
 axe Axt *æks*
 axis Achse *æksɪs*
 ay! wehe! *ɛi*
 aye immer, ewig *ɛi*
 Ayr, Ayrshire (Schottland) *ɛə'rʃə*
 the Azores die Azoren *ə'zɔ:z*
 azure himmelblau, azurn *ɛi'zɜ:*

babe, baby kleines Kind *bɛɪb, bɛɪbi*
 Babington (S. 167) *bæ'bɪŋtən*
 bachelor Baccalaureus (unterster
 akademischer Grad) *bæ'tʃəlɜ:*
 back Rücken; zurück; ~room Hinter-
 zimmer; ~wards rückwärts *bæk, }*
 bacon Speck *bɛɪkən* [*~'ju:dz*]

bad schlecht, schlimm *bæd*
 badge Abzeichen, Kennzeichen *bædʒ*
 bag Sack, Schulmappe, (Reise)tasche)
 Bailey *bɛɪl* [*bæg*]
 bake backen; ~r Bäcker *bɛɪk*
 Bakerloo *bɛɪkərlu*
 ball Kugel, Ball *bɔl*
 ballad Ballade *bæləd*
 Ballantrae (S. 169) *bæl'ntreɪ*
 Ballantyne (S. 169) *bæl'ntəɪn*
 balloon Ballon *bɪ'læn, bɪ'lənɪst*
 Balmoral (Schottland) *bælmɔ'rəl*
 Baltic Sea Ostsee *bɔ'tɪk*
 Bancroft (S. 171) *bæ'ŋkrɔft*
 band Schar; Band *bænd*
 banish verbannen *bæ'nɪʃ*
 bank Erdwall, Böschung, Steigung,
 Anhöhe; (Fluß-)Ufer; Bank *bæŋk*
 banker Bankhalter, banking- Bank-)
 banner Banner *bæ'nɜ:* [*bæŋkɜ:*]
 banquet Brunkmahl *bæŋkɪt*
 baptism Taufe; baptist Täufer, Bap-
 tist; baptize taufen *bæptɪzəm,*
bæ'ptɪst, -təɪz
 bar Querbalken, Sperrbaum, Schranke,
 Stange; quer vor Fluß- oder Hafens-
 mündung liegende Sandbank; An-
 waltstand; Schenkstisch; versperren,
 hemmen; ~ring ausgenommen *bɑ:*
 barbed mit Widerhaken versehen *bɑ:bd*
 barber Barbier *bɑ:bɜ:*
 bard Barde, Sänger *bɑ:d*
 bare bloß, nackt; ~ly kaum *bɛə*
 bargain Handel; feilschen *bɑ:gɪn*
 barge Leichter Schiff *bɑ:dʒ*
 bark Boot, Barke *bɑ:k*
 bark bellen; ~ing Gebell *bɑ:kɪŋ*
 barley Gerste *bɑ:rl*
 barometer *bærə'mɔ:tɜ:*
 baron Baron; baronet *bærən, bæ'rənət*
 barrack Baracke *bærək*
 barren unfruchtbar, wertlos *bærən*
 base Grundlage; gründen *bɛɪs*
 basin Becken, Schale *bɛɪsn*
 basis Grundlinie *bɛɪsɪs*
 basket Korb *bɑskɪt*
 bat Schlagballkelle *bæt*
 bath Bad; to bathe baden *bæp; bɛɪd*
 baton Taktstock, (Ausssprache fran-
 zösisch) seltener: *bætən*

battery Batterie *bæ'trɪ*
 battle Schlacht *bætl*
 battlements Zinnen *bætl'ment*
 bay Bucht; Beere, Vorbeer *bɛɪ*
 bay besen *bɛɪ*
 B.C. (= before Christ) *bɪ sɪ*
 beach Strand *bɪtʃ*
 beacon Leuchtfener *bɪkən*
 Beaconsfield *bɪ'kɒnzfi:ld*
 beam Balken, Strahl; strahlen,
 glänzen *bɪm*
 bear Bär *bɛə*
 bear tragen, (durch)föhren, gebären;
 ~ with Nachsicht haben mit; ~er
 Träger; ~ing Benehmen; Orien-
 tierung; Einwirkung *bɛə*
 beard Bart *bɪəd*
 beast Bestie, Vieh *bɪst*
 beat Schlag, Taktschlag; schlagen,
 ~er Treiber *bɪt*
 Beauchamp (Person) *bɪ:tʃəm*
 Beaucherc tüchtiger Gelehrter *bɔ:klɑ:k*
 beautiful schön; beautify ver-
 schönern; beauty Schönheit }
 because weil *bɪkɔ:z* [*bɪ'kɔ:z*]
 Bechuanaland *bɛtʃu'ɑ:nə* [*bɪ'kɔ:m*]
 become werden, geziehen, zieren }
 bed Bett; Beet *bed*
 beef Rind; Rindfleisch *bif*
 beer Bier *bɪə*
 before adv. vorher; prep. vor; conj.
 bevor; ~hand vorher *bə'fɔ:*; ~hand
 beg bitten; ~gar Bettler *beg*
 begin anfangen; ~ning Anfang
bə'gɪnɪŋ
 behalf Behuf, on ~ of an Stelle (im
 Namen) von *bə'hɑ:f*
 behave sich betragen; behaviour
 Benehmen *bə'heɪv*
 behead enthaupten *bə'hɛd*
 behind adv. hinten, zurück; prep.
 hinter *bə'hɪnd*
 behold erblicken, *bə'həʊld*
 being Sein, Dasein, Wesen *bɪɪŋ*
 belfry Glockenturm *bɛlfrɪ* [*bɛldʒɪəm*]
 Belgium Belgien; Belgian belgisch
 belief Glaube; believe glauben;
 believer Gläubiger (Christ) *bɪ'lɪf*,
tə bɪ'lɪv

belike vielleicht, vermutlich *bə'lɪk*
 bell Glocke, Klingel *bel*
 belly Bauch *bɛlɪ*
 belong gehören *bə'lɒŋ*
 beloved innigst geliebt *bə'ləvɪd*
 below adv. unten, prep. (unter *bə'ləʊ*
 belt Gürtel *belt*
 Benares (Ostindien) *bə'nɑ:əs*
 bench Bank *bentʃ* [*bend*]
 bend biegen, spannen (sich) neigen
 beneath adv. drunten; prep. unter;
bə'nɪθ
 benediction Segen; benefactor
 Wohltäter; beneficial zuträglich,
 heilsam; benefit Wohltat, Nutzen
bə'nɛdɪ'kʃən, *bə'nɛfɪ'ktər*, *-fɪ'ʃt*, *bə'nɛfɪt*
 Benedictine *bə'nɛdɪ'ktɪn*
 Bengal Bengalen (englische Präsi-
 dent-schaft in Ostindien) *bɛŋgɔ:l*
 Benjamin *bə'nɛdʒəmɪn*
 Ben Nevis (Berg, Schottland) *bə'nɛ:vɪs*
 bent gebeugt *bent*
 Bentham (S. 164) *bə'nθəm*
 Beowulf *bɪ'wʊlf*
 bequeath letztwillig zusprechen,
 hinterlassen *bə'kɛʊt*
 bereave berauben; ~ment Berau-
 bung (bes. durch den Tod) *bə'rɪv*
 Berkshire *bər'kʃɪə*
 Berlin *bər'lɪn*; ~wool Stiefwolle
bər'lɪn wʊl
 Bermuda *bɜ:mwɪ'də*
 berry Beere *beri*
 berth Koje, enges Bett an der Wand
 in Schiff oder Eisenbahn *bɜ:θ*
 Bertha Berta *bɜ:θə*
 beseech dringend bitten, anflehen
bə'si:ʃ
 beside neben; besides prep. außer
 adv. außerhalb, außerdem *bə'saɪd(z)*
 besieger Belagerer *bə'si:dzər*
 Bess, ~y Lieschen *bes*
 bestow verleihen *bə'stəʊ*
 bet Wette; wetten *bet*
 betrothe verloben *bɪ'trəʊd*
 betake sich begeben *bɪ'teɪk*
 better bessern *betər*
 betray verraten *bɪ'treɪ*
 between, betwixt zwischen *bə'twɪn*
 beware of sich hüten vor *bɪ'weə*

beyond jenſeit(s) *bɔjənd*
 Bible Bibel *báibl* [*báise'nt:nar*]
 bicentenary Zweihundertjahrfeier
 bid befehlen, heißen *bíd*
 hier Bähre *bíər*
 big groß, dick *bíg*
 bike (Fahr-)Rad; radeln *báik*
 bill Geſetzesvorlage, Schein, Rechnung, Rezept *bít*
 bind binden *báind*
 biographer Biograph *báio'grəfər*
 biology; biologist *báio'lədʒi*
 bird Vogel *bɔrd* [*minəm*]
 Birmingham (Warwickshire) *bɔr-}*
 birth Geburt; -day Geburtstag;
 -place Geburtſort *bɔrþ*
 biscuit Kruſperling (irrtümlich:
 Cafés) *biskit*
 bit Wiſſen *bít*
 bishop Biſchof *bíʃəp*
 bitter bitter *bítər*
 bivouac Zimaf *bí'vúæk*
 black ſchwarz; -board (Schul-
 Wand-)Tafel; -lines Linienblatt;
 -smith Grobſchmied *blæk*, -börd,
 -länz, -smíp
 Blackburn (Lancashire) *blæk'bɔrn*
 blade Klinge *bléid*
 blame Tadel, tadeln; -abbe tadelns=
 wert; -less untadelig *blém*
 blank leer, weiß, unbeſchrieben, reim=
 loſ; freigeſaſſene Stelle *blænʃk*
 blanket weiße Wolldecke *blæ'ŋkít*
 blast Windſtoß *blást*
 blaze flackern, lodern *bléiz*
 bleat blöſen *blít*
 bleed bluten *blíd*
 blend vermengen, -ſchmelzen *blend*
 bless ſegnen; -ing Segen; blest
 geſegnet *blesɪŋ*
 blind blind (verdunkelnder) aufzieh=
 barer Rollvorhang *bláind*
 blissful glücklich *blisfʊl*
 blithe froh, heiter; -some fröhlich,
 heiter *bláidʒ*, -som
 block Block, Klotz; -ade Abſperrung
blók, *blók'id*
 blood Blut; -y blutig *blʊd*
 blossom Blüte; blühen *blɒsəm*
 blot Fleck, Klecks; (mit Löſchpapier)

abdrücken; -ter Löſcher, Löſch=
 walze; blotting-paper Löſchpapier
 blouse Bluſe *bláuz* [*blot*]
 blow Schlag; blaſen, wehen; -up
 in die Luft fliegen *blóu*
 Blucher blütſør
 blue blau *blú* [verſehen *blondər*]
 blunder Verſehen; ſich ungeſchickt
 blunt derb, gerade *blunt*
 blush erröten *blɒʃ*
 board Brett; (Schiffs-)Bord, Tiſch,
 Koſt; an Bord kommen, entern; -er
 Zimmermieter mit Penſion (Koſt);
 -ing-house Familienpenſion *bórd*
 boast Ruhm, Stolz; ſich rühmen *bóust*
 boat Boot; -race Regatta *bóu'trɛis*
 bobsleigh lenkbarer Mannſchafts=
 ſchlitten *bɒbslɛi*
 body Körper, Körperſchaft *bɒdi*
 bog Sumpf *bɒg*
 boil kochen, ſieden; boiler Keſſel *bóit*
 (Cape) Bojador (Weſtafrika) *bɒdʒədɔr*
 bold kühn *bóuld*
 Boleyn (Familiennamen) *bʊ'lɪn*
 Bolingbroke (engl. Adelsgeſchlecht)
bɔ'lɪŋbrʊk
 bombastic ſchwuſtig *bɒmbæ'stɪk*
 Bombay (Oderindien) *bɒmbɛi*
 bone Knochen, Bein *bóun*
 Boniface Bonifaſius (+ 755) *bɒ'nɪfɛis*
 book Buch; buchen, eintragen; -worm
 Büchermurm *bukʊɔrm*
 boot Stiefel; -ed geſtiefelt *bút*
 booth Bude *báʊp*
 Booth, Rev. William, D. C. L.
 Oxon, geb. 1829 *báʊp*
 border Rand, Grenze *bɔrdər*
 Borneo *bɔr'niɔ*
 borough Marktflecken *bɔ'ro*
 borrow borgen; -er Borger *bɔ'ro*
 bosom Buſen, Herzlichkeit *bʊzm*
 Boston (Lincolnſhire, England;
 Maſſachuſetts, Amerika) *bɔ'stɪn*
 Bosworth (Leiceſterſhire) *bɔ'zʊrþ*
 botanic, -al botaniſch; botany Bo=
 tanik, Pflanzenkunde *bɔtæ'nɪk*, *bɔ'tɒni*
 both beide *bəʊþ*
 bottle Flaſche *bɒtl*
 bottom Grund, das Unterſte *bɒtm*
 Boulogne *bulɔwn*

bound for fahrplanmäßig bestimmt
nach

bound be-, angrenzen; springen;

Grenze; -ary Grenze *bāund*, -ry

Bournemouth (Hampshire) *bōrnmoʃ*

bow Bogen; -man Bogenschiütze *bōu*

bow Verbeugung; sich verbeugen *bāu*

bower Laube, Wohnung *bāuər*

bowl werfen, rollen; -er Werfer,

Regelschieber *bōwl* [Lage *bōks*]

box Schachtel, Kasten; (Theater-)

boyhood Knabenzeit *bōihud*

Boz 10, 7

brace gewundene, geschweifte Klam-

mer; fest zusammenziehen, an-

spannen (die Nerven), stärken *brēs*

bracelet Armband *brēs'let*

braces Hosenträger *brēs'iz*

bracket Gaswandarm; -s eckige

Klammern *bræk'et*

Bradford (Yorkshire) *bræ'dfərd*

Bradley (S. 6, Fußn.) geb. 1845

bræ'dl

brain Gehirn, Verstand *brēm*

branch Zweig; sich verzweigen *brānts*

brandy Cognac *brændi*

brass Messing, Erz *brās*

brave tapfer; -ry Tapferkeit *bräv*

breach Breche *bräts*

bread Brot *bred*

break brechen, unterbrechen; ~ up

zersprengen, zur Auflösung bringen;

~ Unterbrechung; ~fast Frühstück

bræk, *bræk'fäst* 12, 23

breast Brust *brēst*

breath Atem, Luft; to breathe atmen;

to ~ one's last den Geist aufgeben,

verschcheiden *brēʃ*, *tbrä'd*

breed Brut; erzeugen, erziehen *brīd*

breeze Brise, Wind *brīs* [*brēdrən*]

brethren Brüder, Mitmenschen

breve Zeichen der Kürze; brevity

Kürze *bräv*, *breviti*

brew brauen; -er Brauer *brū*

bribe bestechen; Bestechungs Geschenk

bräb

brick Ziegel, Mauerstein; -layer

Maurer *brik*, *-lēər*

bride Braut, kürzlich vermählte

bridge Brücke *bridž* [Frau; *bräid*]

The English Scholar (Vocabulary).

bridle Zügel *bräid*

brief kurz *brīf*

brigade *brigēd*

bright hell, klar *bräit*

Brighton (Suffex) *bräitn*

brillant glänzend *bril'ant*

bring about hervorbringen; up er-

ziehen *brin* *ab'äut*, *np*

Brisbane (Queensland) *briz'bēin*

Bristol (Gloucestershire) *brisl*

Britain Britannien; British britisch;

Britisher ein Mitglied des groß-

englischen Volksstammes außerhalb

der Vereinigten Staaten Amerikas,

ein Angehöriger des groß-britischen

Weltreichs; Briton Brite *britn*,

brit'is

Brittany die Bretagne *brit'ni*

broad breit; -en (sich) verbreitern

brōd

Brompton (westl. Stadtteil Londons)

brɒmptən [*brɒŋkär'tis*]

bronchitis Luftröhrenentzündung }

bronze Bronze *bronz*

brooch Brosche *brōu's*

brook Bach; -let Bächlein *brūk*

Brooklyn (Long-Island) *brukl'in*

broom Ginster, Besen *brām*

brother Bruder; ~in-law Schwager;

~hood Bruderschaft *brv'dr*

brow Augenbraue, Gesicht *bräu*

brown braun *brāwn*

Browning (S. 145) *brāw'niŋ*

Bruges *brūž*

Brunswick Braunschweig *brv'nzvik*

brush Bürste, Pinsel; bürsen *brv's*

Brussels Brüssel *brv'stɪz*

brutish viehisch, wild *brut's*

Buchanan (Person) *bukæ'nən*

Buckingham *bv'kiŋəm*

buckwheat Buchweizen *bv'kvi't*

buff braungelbes Stüffelleber *bv'f*

build bauen, ~ing Gebäude *bild*

bulk Körper, Masse; ~y groß, schwer

bullet Flintenkugel *bu'let* [*bv'tk*]

bun Rundstück, Semmel, Wecken *bvn*

Bunyan (S. 160) *bv'n'ən*

burden Bürde, Wiederholungsvers,

Tonnengehalt *bōrdn*

Burgundy Burgund *bōrgm'di*

burial Begräbnis *be'ri:t*
 Burke (S. 161) *bōrk* [*bōrn*]
 burn (ver)brennen, ~er Brenner)
 Burns (S. 134) *bōrnz*
 burr Klette, Schwellung, Knorren,
 Rauheit im Halse; Kehl-R in
 Nord-England *bōr*
 burst Krach; bersten *bōrst*
 bury begraben *beri*
 bus Omnibus *bʊs*
 hush Busch, Urwald; ~y buschig,
 bushel Scheffel *bʊʃəl* [dicht *bʊʃ*]
 business Geschäft; busy geschäftig
biznəs, bizi [*bʊt*]
 but nur, erst; außer; aber, sondern)
 butcher Fleischer *butʃər*
 butter Butter *bʊtər* [*bʊtʃər*]
 buttler Mundschenk, oberster Diener)
 button Knopf; up zuknöpfen *bʊtn*
 buy kaufen *bai*
 by and by allmählich *baiənbai*
 Byron (engl. Dichter, † 1824) *bai'rən*
 Byzantine *bizæ'ntin*

cab Droschke, ~man-, ~nfutischer *kæb*
 cabbage Kohl *kæ'bidʒ*
 cabin Kabine, Kajüte, Kammer *kæ'bin*
 cabinet Kabinett; ~-maker Kunst-
 tüschler *kæ'binət*
 cable Kabel; ~gram Kabeltelegramm;
 ~railway Seilbahn *kæ'bl*
 Cabot (engl. Seefahrer, um 1497)
kæ'bət
 cadet [jüngster Sohn] Kadett *kæ'det*
 Cærnarvon *kænər'vən*
 Cæsar *sizər*
 cæsura *siz'ʉ'ra*
 cage Käfig *kæ'idʒ*
 Caius *kæ'ius*
 cake Kuchen, Biskuit *kæk*
 calamity Unglück *kælə'miti*
 calculation Berechnung *kælkə'leɪʃən*
 Calcutta (Vorderindien) *kælkʊ'tə*
 Caledonian Kaledonier *kælədō'nian*
 calf Kalb; Wade *kæf*
 calico Kattun *kæ'likoʊ*
 California *kælifō'rniə*
 call (an)rufen, nennen; anlegen;
 ~ on besuchen, seine Aufwartung
 machen, einladen, auffordern; ~out

einberufen; ~ over aufrufen; ~ Be-
 such, Ruf; ~ box Telephonzelle;
 ~ing Beruf; ~ing card Besuchs-
 karte *kɔt* [*kæ'lvɔrt*]
 Calvert (engl. Reisender, † um 1850)
 calligrapher Schönschreiber *kæli'grəfər*
 calm ruhig, Ruhe; ~down sich be-
 ruhigen *kəm*
 Cambrian kambrisch *kæ'mbrɪən*
 Camden Town (nördl. Stadtteil
 Londons) *kæmdən tāʊn*
 Cameron (schott. Clan) *kæ'mərən*
 camomile Kamille *kæ'mə'maɪt*
 camp Lager *kæmp*
 Canada Kanada; Canadian kanadisch
kænədə, kænər'diən
 canal (künstlicher) Kanal *kənæl*
 Canary kanarisch *kənəri*
 cancer Krebs *kænsər*
 candidate Bewerber *kæ'ndidət*
 candle Licht, Kerze; ~stick Leuchter
kændl, ~stik
 cannon Kanone, Geschütz; cannonade
 Kanonade *kænən, kænənəd*
 Canterbury (Kent) *kæn'tɜ:bəri*
 canto Gesang *kæ'nto*
 Canute Knut (Dänenkönig, † 1035)
 cap Mütze *kæp* [*kənʒʉt*]
 capable fähig *kæ'pəbl*
 capacity Fassungskraft *kæpə'siti*
 cape Kap *kæp*
 capital Hauptstadt, großer Anfangs-
 buchstabe, Kapital; hauptsächlich,
 vorzüglich, prächtig *kæ'pitəl*
 capitol Kapitäl *kæ'pitəl*
 capricorn Steinbock *kæ'pri:kɔrn*
 captain Hauptmann, Kapitän *kæptɪn*
 captive gefangen; to capture gefangen
 nehmen, einnehmen *kæ'ptiv, kæptʃər*
 card Karte *kɑrd*
 cardinal hauptsächlichst, Kardinal;
 ~point Himmelsrichtung *kɑr'dinəl*
 car Karren, (Eisenbahn-)Wagen *kɑr*
 caravan Karawane *kærə'ven*
 care Sorgfalt, Besorgtheit, Besorg-
 nis, sorgsame Bemühung, Sorge,
 Obhut; sich kümmern um; ~ful
 sorgfältig; ~less sorglos *kɛər*
 career Laufbahn *kəriər*
 Carey (Komponist, † 1743) *kəri*

cargo Ladung *kargo* [*kə'tiə*]
 caricature lächerlich machen *kæ'ri*
 Carlisle (Cumberland) *kərlä'ɪ*
 Carlyle (S. 165) *kərlä'ɪ*
 Carnarvon (Wales) *kə'när'vən*
 carnation Fleischfarbe; fleischfarbene
 Nelke *kə'nēr'sn*
 carol Jubellied *kærət*
 Caroline Islands Karolinen *kæ'rələɪn*
 (Gulf of) Carpentaria (Nordaustral.)
 kərpəntəriə
 carpenter Zimmermann *kərpəntər*
 carpet Teppich; mit Teppichen be-
 legen; ~bag Reisetasche *kərpət*
 carriage Haltung, Gang, Auftreten,
 Transport, Paketporto, Fracht;
 Wagen; to carry (fort-, über-)
 tragen, befördern; to ~ (a bill)
 durchbringen, ~one's point seinen
 Zweck erreichen; to ~ on weiter
 betreiben, fortsetzen; to ~ out aus-
 führen *kæ'ridʒ*, *kæ'ri*
 cart (zweirädriger) Arbeitswagen *kɑrt*
 cartridge Patrone *kɑrt'ridʒ*
 carve schnitzen *kɑrv*
 case Fall; Behälter, Kapsel; casing
 Überzug, Gehäuse, Verkleidung
 kéis, *kéisɪŋ*
 cash Kasse, bares Geld; zu Gelde
 machen, einkassieren *kæʃ*
 cassowary Kasuar *kæ'səʊəri*
 cast werfen, formen; Rollenbesetzung;
 ~iron Gußeisen *kɑst*
 Castile Kastilien; Castilian kastilisch
 kæstɪ'l; *kæstɪ'liən*
 castle Schloß, ~ed burggekrönt *kɑst*
 cat Katze *kæt*
 catastrophe entscheidende Wendung
 zum Schlimmen, unglücklich-trau-
 riges Ende *kætə'strofi*
 catch fangen, fassen, erfassen (ver-
 stehen); to ~ hold of ergreifen *kætʃ*
 cathedral Kathedrale *kə'pi'drəl*
 catholic katholisch *kæ'pəlɪk*
 cattle Rindvieh *kætl*
 causal kausal *kəʊzəl*
 cause Ursache; Sache; verursachen *kəʊz*
 caution Vorsicht *kə'shən*
 cavalry Reiterei *kæ'vəlri*
 Caxton (S. 65) *kæ'kstn*

cease aufhören *si:z*
 Cecil (männl. Vorname) *sesɪ*
 cede cedieren, abtreten, weichen;
 cession Abtretung *sɪd*, *se'shən*
 ceiling Täfelung; (Zimmer-)Decke
 siliŋ
 celebrate feiern; celebration Feiern
 se'lebreɪt; ~breɪ'shən
 Celt Kelte; Celtic feltisch *selt*, ~ik
 censure Urteil; Tadel *senʃər*
 cent Hundert, Cent; per ~ vom
 Hundert *sent*
 centennial hundertjährig *sente'niəl*
 centigrade *se'ntigrəd*
 central mittlerer; centre Mittelpunkt;
 i. d. Mittelpunkt stellen, in einen
 Mittelpunkt zusammenlaufen *se'ntrəl*
 century Jahrhundert *sentʃəri*
 cereals plur. (Gaben der Ceres)
 Getreidearten, Kornfrüchte *sɪ'rɪəʒ*
 ceremony religiöse Feier; ceremonial
 feierlich *ser'məni*, *sərmə'u'niəl*
 Ceres *sɪ'ris*
 certain sicher, gewiß *sɜrtən*
 certificate Bescheinigung, Zeugnis
 sərti'fɪkət
 Cevennes *svenz*
 Ceylon *se'lon*
 chain Kette *tʃeɪn*
 chair Stuhl *tʃeə*
 chaise Halbkutsche *ʃeɪz*
 chalk Kreide *tʃɔk*
 chamber Kammer *tʃembər*
 champion Vorkämpfer, Vorkämpfer
 tʃæmpiən [*tʃəns*]
 chance Glücksfall, günstige Aussicht
 chancellor Kanzler *tʃənsələr*
 chandelier Kronleuchter *ʃændəlɪər*
 change Wechsel, Änderung, Klein-
 geld wechseln; ~able veränderlich
 tʃeɪndʒ; ~bt
 channel Kanal, Wasserstraße *tʃæ'nəl*
 chaos Wirrwarr *kə'ɔs*
 chap-book volkstümliches Buch, wie
 es hausierende Kaufleute (chapmen)
 vertrieben *tʃæp'bʊk*
 chapel Kapelle *tʃæptəl*
 chapter Kapitel *tʃæptər*
 character Charakter, Gepräge, Buch-
 stabe; einprägen; ~istic kenn-

zeichnend *kæræktər; t̃ kæræktər; kæræktəri'stik*
 charge Belastung, Aufsicht, Amt; Preis, Kosten, Betrag, Angriff; to ~ belasten, abfordern; angreifen *tšardž*
 Charley = 1. *tšarl̃* Charles; = 2. *šarl̃* Charlotte
 Charlemagne = Charles the Great 768—814 *tšarl̃mēin*
 Charlestown *tšarl̃ztāun*
 charm Reiz; -ing reizend *tšärm*
 chart Seefarte *tšärt*
 charter Freibrief, Urkunde *tšärtər*
 Charterhouse (urjpr. Kartäuserkloster in London) *tšärtərhäus*
 chase jagen, hegen *tšeis*
 chasm Abgrund, Lücke *kæzm*
 chat plaudern *tsət*
 Chatham (Person); (Kent) *tšætəm*
 Chaucer (S. 123) *tšōsr*
 cheap billig *tšip* [*tšipsaid*]
 Cheapside (Straße in London)
 check Schach, Gehalt, Dämpfer, Schlappe; ~ hemmen *tšek*
 cheek Wange *tšik*
 cheer Beifallsruf; freudig-mutige Stimmung; mit Zurufen begrüßen; ~ up Mut fassen, Mut geben, aufheitern; ~ less freudenlos, ~ful heiter, ~ly fröhlich *tšer*
 cheese Käse *tšiz*
 Cheke (S. 155) *tsik* [*tšelsi*]
 Chelsea (südwestl. Stadtteil Londons)
 chemise Frauenhemd *šmiz*
 chemistry Chemie *kēmstri*
 cheque Zahlungsanweisung, Zahlschein, Scheck *tšek*
 cherish lieblos, hegen *tšeriš*
 cherry Kirsche *tšeri*
 cherub *tšērəb* [*tšärūt*]
 Cherwell (linker Nebenfl. d. Themse)
 Cheshire (Grafschaft) *tšēšər*
 chess Schach *tšes*
 chest Brust *tšest*
 Cheviot 9, 29
 chicken Kucklein *tšikin*
 chief Anführer; hauptsächlich; ~tain Oberhaupt, Anführer *tšif; ~tin*
 chilblain Frostbeule *tšiblēm*

child Kind, childe Junfer *tšätd*
 chill, ~y kalt, frostig *tšit*
 chime harmonisches Glockengeläute *tšäim*
 chimerical schimärisch *kimērīkət*
 chimney Schornstein *tšimn*
 chin Kinn *tšin*
 China China; ~man Chineser, Chinese Chinesisch; china Porzellan *tšä'nä; tšä'niz*
 Chinde Tschinde (port. Hafen im Sambesi-Delta, Afrika) *tšind*
 chisel Meißel, meißeln *tšizəl*
 chivalry Ritterschaft *šivtri*
 chocolate Schokolade *tšokələt*
 choir Chor *kžär*
 choice Wahl; auserslesen, kostbar *tšōis*
 choke ersticken, würgen *tšōuk*
 choose auswählen *tšuz*
 chorus Chor *kōrs*
 Christ Christus; Christian Christ; christlich; Christianity Christentum; Christmas Weihnachten; Christopher Christoph *kraist; kristi'an, kristi'æ'niti, krismas, kristəfər*
 chronological der Zeitfolge nach geordnet *kronəl'adžīkəl*
 Chrysoloras († 1415) *krisolō'ras*
 church Kirche; ~yard Kirchhof *tšärtš, ~jard*
 Chuzzlewitt (S. 168) *tšnzltūt*
 Cicero *šisro* 12, 30
 cider Apfelwein *säidr*
 cigar Zigarre *sigār*
 Cinque Ports die fünf (früher befestigten) Häfen an der Südküste Englands: Hastings, Romney, Hythe, Dover, Sandwich *šīnk*
 cipher Null *säifər*
 circle Kreis; umkreisen, umgeben; circulate in Umlauf setzen oder sein; circulation Umlauf *särkt, sār'kulēt*
 circumference Umfang *särkn'mferəns*
 circumstance Umstand, Verhältnis *sär'kəmtəns*
 cistern Wasserbehälter *si'stərn*
 circus runder Platz *särkəs*
 citizen Bürger *sitzen*
 city Stadt, Altstadt *siti*

civil bürgerlich, Bürger-, Zivil-;
~service Verwaltungsdienst; ~ian
bürgerlich; ~ization Gefittung;
to ~ize gebildet machen, ver-
feinern *sivít, si'viláiz*

clad = clothed gekleidet

claim Rechtsanspruch; beanspruchen
kléim

clan (schott.) Stamm; ~sman Stamm-
genosse *klæn; klænzmen*

Clarence (Name) *klær'ens*

Clarendon *klær'ndən* [*här'lo*]

Clarissa Harlowe (S. 161) *klæri'sä*

clash klirrender Zusammenprall, Ge-
töse *klæš*

clasp umfassen *kläsp*

class Klasse; zusammenstellen; classi-
cal klassisch; the classics die
lateinische u. altgriechische Sprache;
classification, classify Einteilung
(in Klassen) einteilen *klas, klæs'ik-t,*
klæ'siks, klæ'sifai

clatter rasseln *klæ'tər*

clause Satz *klōz*

claw Klaue *klō*

clay Ton, Staub *klēi*

clean sauber, rein; säubern *klīn*

clear klar; klären, abräumen, lichten;

~ of frei, los von; ~ness Klarheit;

~ance Klärung *klīer*

cleave spalten *kliv*

Cleopatra *klip'pə'tra* [*klō'rdzi*]

clergy Geistlichkeit; ~man Geistlicher

clerk Geistlicher, Gelehrter; Schreiber,
Buchhalter, Gehilfe *klärk* (in
Amerika: *klörk*)

clever gewandt, geschickt, flug *klē'vər*

cliff Klippe *klif*

Cliftonian (S. 145) *kliftō'nian*

climate, clime Klima *klāmət*

climb (hinauf)klettern *klāim*

cling to haften, sich klammern an
klīŋ

clip Klammer, Klemme; beschneiden,
abstutzen, durchlöcher *klip*

Clive (Feldherr und Staatsmann
1725—1774) *klāv*

cloak Mantel *klōuk*

clock Schlaguhr (Wand-, Stuh-,
Turmuhr) *klōk*

close nahe, dicht, eingeschlossen,
schmül; Schluß; schließen *klōus;*
t klōuz

closet Geheimzimmer (Kabinett),
Wandschrank *klō'zit*

cloth Tuch; to ~e kleiden; clothes
Kleider; cloths Tuche; Tischtücher,
Tischzeug *klōp; t klōut; klōudz;*
klōps

cloud Wolke; ~y wolfig *klāud*

club Keule, Knüttel; Verein, Klub *klōb*

Clyde (Meerbusen, Westschottl.) *klāid*

co- Mit- *kōu-*

coach Kutsche *kōutš*

coal Steinkohle; ~ing-station Kohlen-
station; ~pit Kohlengrube *kōut;*

coast Küste *kōust* [*kōulīŋ stē'shŋ*]

coat Rock; ~ed gekleidet, gedeckt;

~tails langer, vorn abgerundeter
schwalbenschwanzartiger Rock *kōut*

Cobden (Staatsmann 1804—1865)
kōbdən

cobra Brillenschlange *kōubrā*

cock Hahn *kōk*

cocoa Kakao *kōuko*

cod Kabeljau *kōd*

coffee-pot Kaffeekanne *kōfi pōt*

coffer Geldkasten *kō'fər*

coffin Sarg *kō'fin*

cognate verwandt *kō'gnət*

coin Münze, Geldstücke münzen; ~age
das Münzen, die Münze *kōin*

coincidence Zusammentreffen; coin-

cident zusammentreffend; coin-

cide zusammentreffen *kō'insidəns,*

kō'insā'id

cold kalt; Kälte, Erkältung; catch

~ sich erkälten *kōuld*

Coleridge (engl. Dichter, † 1834)
kōl'ridž

Colet (S. 155) *kōlet* [*kōlīs'əm*]

Coliseum Vespasians Kolosseum

collar Kragen *kōlər*

collect (ein)sammeln; ~ion Samm-
lung; ~or Sammler *kōlekt, kōle'kšn*

college Hochschule, Gymnasium

Collins (S. 38) *kō'līnz* [*kō'lidž*]

collision Zusammenstoß *kōlī'žn*

colloquial der Umgangssprache an-
gehörig oder gemäß *kōlōw'kwjəl*

colon Doppelpunkt *kəʊˈlən*
 Cologne Köln *kələʊn*
 colonel Oberst *kəˈnəl*
 colonial kolonial; colonisation Be-
 siedlung; colonist Ansiedler; colo-
 nizer Kolonistator; colony An-
 siedlung *kələʊniət*, *kələˈnɪzɪʃn*,
kəˈlənɪst, *kəˈlənɪ*
 colour Farbe; färben; ~ing Färbung
kələr
 column Säule *kələm* [*kələmbəs*]
 Columbus Kolumbus († 1506)]
 comb Kamm; kämmen *kəʊm*
 combat Kampf *kəˈmbət*, *kəˈmbət*
 combination Verbindung; combine
 zusammenfügen, verbinden *kəm-
 bɪnɪʃn*; *kəmbaɪn*
 come about sich zutragen *kəm*
 comedy Lustspiel; comic komisch
kəˈmɛdi, *kəˈmɪk*
 comfort trösten; Behaglichkeit; ~able
 behaglich *kəˈmfɔrt*
 comma Beistrich *kəmə*
 command Kommando, Befehl; beherr-
 schen, gebieten; ~er Befehlshaber;
 ~ment Befehl, biblisches Gebot
kəmənd [*kəmens*]
 commence Anfang; beginnen]
 commend anempfehlen *kəmend*
 comment Auslegung, Bemerkung
kəˈment
 commerce Handel; commercial
 kaufmännisch, Handels- *kəˈmɜrs*,
kəˈmɜːʃəl
 commission Offizierstelle; non- ~ed
 officer Unteroffizier; ~er Bevoll-
 mächtigter; to commit übergeben,
 ~weisen; begehen; committee
 Ausschuß, Kommission *kəˈmɪʃn*,
kəˈmɪtɪ, *kəˈmɪtɪ*
 common gewöhnlich, gemeinsam; ~er
 Nichtadeltiger; the ~s die Ge-
 meinen, das Unterhaus; ~sense
 § 11, A. 1; ~wealth Gemein-
 wesen, Staat *kəˈmən*
 communication Verkehr; com-
 municate mitteilen; community
 Gemeinwesen *kəˈmjuːnɪkəʃn*, *kəˈmjuː-
 nɪkət*, *kəˈmjuːnɪtɪ*
 companion Genosse; company Gesell-

schaft, Gemeinschaft *kəmpæˈnɪən*;
kəˈmpəni
 comparable vergleichbar; compara-
 tive vergleichend, verhältnismäßig;
 compare vergleichen; comparison
 Vergleichung *kəˈmpərəbəl*, *kəm-
 pæˈrətɪv*; *kəmpɛər*; *kəmpæˈrɪsm*
 compartment Wagenabteil *kəmpərˈt-
 mɛnt*
 compass Kompaß; the ~es der Zirkel
kəmpəs
 compassion Mitleid *kəmpæˈʃn*
 compel zwingen *kəmpeɪt*
 complementary ergänzend *kəm-
 plɪˈmentrɪ*
 complete vollständig; to ~ vollenden;
 completion Vollendung *kəmplit*;
kəmplɪʃn
 complex zusammengesetzt *kəmpleks*
 complication Verwicklung *kəmpli-
 kəʃn*
 compliment Höflichkeitsbezeugung;
 beglückwünschen *kəmplɪˈment*
 comply (with) willfahren *kəmplaɪ*
 component Bestandteil *kəmpəʊˈnɛnt*
 compose zusammensetzen, verfassen;
 composition (Wort-)Zusammen-
 setzung; compound Kompositum,
 zusammengezogen; zusammensetzen
kəmpəʊz; *kəmpəʊzɪʃn*, *kəˈmpəʊnd*
 comprehensive umfassend *kəmprə-
 heˈnsɪv*
 comprise umfassen *kəmpraɪz*
 comrade Kamerad *kəˈmrɛɪd*
 conceal verheimlichen *kənsɪt*
 conceit (Gedanke) Dünkel, ge-
 schraubte Redewendung *kənsɪt*
 conceive (in Gedanken er-)fassen
kənsɪv
 concentrate sammeln, verstärken;
 concentre sammeln *kəˈnsɛntrɛɪt*,
kənsɛˈntər
 conception Begriff, Vorstellung,
 Auffassung *kənsɛˈpʃn*
 concern Angelegenheit; betreffen;
 ~ed about bestimmet um; ~ing
 betreffend *kənsɜːn*
 concert Einvernehmen, Überein-
 stimmung, Konzert; in ~ gleich-
 mäßig zusammen *kənsɔːrt*.

concession Zugeständnis; concessive *kənse-ʃn, kənse-siv*
 conclude schließen, conclusion Schluß *kənkləd, kənkləʒn*
 concord Eintracht *kə'nkɔrd*
 concurrence Zusammentreffen, Mitwirkung *kən'kʊərəns*
 condition Bedingung, Lage, Zustand *kən'di-ʃn* [*dem(nē-ʃn)*]
 condemn verurteilen; -ation *kən-ʃ*
 conditional *kən'di-ʃnəl*
 conduct Führung, Betragen; to conduct führen, geleiten; -or Leiter, Dirigent; Schaffner *kə'ndəkt, tə kəndəkt, kəndəktər*
 confederate verbündet *kənfe'deret*
 confer verleihen; -ment Verleihung; -ence Beratung *kən'fər (-mənt), kən'fərəns*
 confessor Bekenner; confession Bekenntnis *kən'fesər*
 confidence Vertrauen; confident vertrauend *kən'fɪdəns, kən'fɪdənt*
 confined beschränkt *kən'faɪnd*
 confirm bestätigen; einsegnen *kən'fɜrm*
 conflict Zusammenstoß, Widerstreit *kən'flikt* [*fɜ'miti*]
 conformity Gleichförmigkeit *kən-ʃ*
 confound vermengen, verwirren, verderben *kən'faʊnd*
 confront die Stirne bieten *kən'frʌnt*
 confuse verwirren *kən'fju:z*
 congratulate beglückwünschen; congratulation Glückwunsch *kən'græ'tju:leit, kən'græ'tju:lē-ʃn*
 congregation Versammlung, Gemeinde *kən'grɛgə-ʃn*
 Congresbury (Somersetshire) *kən'zɜ:bəri*
 congress Zusammentreffen, Kongreß *kən'gres* [*kə'ndʒu'geɪt*]
 conjugate konjugieren, abwandeln
 conjunction Bindewort, Verbindung *kən'dʒən'kʃən*
 connect verknüpfen, verbinden; -ion Verbindung *kə'nekt; -ʃn*
 conquer erobern, (be)siegen; -or Eroberer; conquest Eroberung *kən'keər, kən'keərə, kən'keəst*
 conscious bewußt; -ness Bewußtsein *kən'səs*

consecutive *kən'sekjʊtɪv*
 consent Zustimmung, Übereinstimmung; zustimmen *kən'sent*
 consequence Folge; consequent Folgefaß; consequently folglich *kən'sə'kju:əns*
 conservatism; conservative; conservatory Gewächshaus *kən'sər-vətɪzəm, kən'sər'vətəri*
 consider bedenken, halten (für); -able beträchtlich; -ation Betrachtung *kən'sɪ'dər, kən'sɪ'dərə-ʃn*
 consist of bestehen aus; -ent übereinstimmend, konsequent, dicht *kən'sɪst*
 consolidation festeres Zusammenschließen *kən'solɪdē-ʃn*
 consonance Einklang *kən'sə'nəns*
 consonant Mitlauter *kən'sənənt*
 consort Gatte, Gemahl *kən'sɔrt*
 conspicuous deutlich sichtbar, hervorragend *kən'spi'kjʊəs*
 constant beständig *kən'stənt*
 Constantinople *kən'stəntɪ'nəʊ'pɪ*
 constituency Wahlbezirk; constituent bildend, ausmachend; Wähler *kən'stɪ'tju:nsi*
 constitution Verfassung; constitutional verfassungsmäßig; to constitute bilden *kən'stɪ'tju:ʃnəl, kən'stɪ'tju:ʃn* [*streɪn*]
 constrain zwingen, zwingen *kən-ʃ*
 construct erbauen; -ion Bau *kən'strʌkt; -ʃn*
 construe konstruieren *kən'stru:*
 consul Konsul *kən'sʌl*
 consult (sich) beraten *kən'sʌlt*
 consummate vollendet *kən'sʌmət*
 contact Berührung *kən'tækt*
 contagious ansteckend *kən'tē'di:əs*
 contain enthalten *kən'teɪn*
 contemporary Zeitgenosse; zeitgenössisch *kən'tempərəri*
 contemptible verächtlich *kən'temptɪbəl*
 contend kämpfen, wetteifern *kən'tend*
 content zufrieden; zufriedenstellen *kən'tent*
 contents plur. Inhalt *kən'te:n'ts*
 contest Streitigmachung, Kampf *kən'test*

continent Festland, Erdteil; ~al festländisch *kontinent*; *kontinent*
 continual fortwährend; to continue fort dauern, =fahren, =setzen; continuous fort dauernd, zusammenhängend, gleichmäßig, stetig *kontinüel, kontinü, kontinüös*
 contract Vertrag *kōntrakt*; to contract (sich) zusammenziehen, sich beziehen; ~ion Zusammenziehung; ~or Lieferant *kōntrakt, ~šn*
 contrariwise umgekehrt, im Gegenteil *kōntrariüiz*
 contrary Gegenteil, entgegen *kōntrari*
 contrast Gegensatz *kōntrast*
 contribute beitragen *kōntribut*
 contrive es fertig bringen *kōntriv*
 control Aufsicht; beaufsichtigen; ~ler Aufseher; ~lable lenksam *kōntrōul*
 convenience Bequemlichkeit; convenient passend, bequem *kōnvēnions*
 conventionalism übliche Art *kōnvēnšnolizm*
 conventional üblich
 conversation Unterredung; ~al Unterhaltungs~; converse umgekehrt; sich unterreden *kōnvērsēšn, kōnvērs*
 convert umwandeln, bekehren *kōnvērt*; conversion Umwandlung, Bekehrung *kōnvērsšn*
 convey hinführen, hinschaffen, übermitteln; ~ance Transport, Beförderung(=smittel) *kōnvēi*
 conviction Überzeugung *kōnvikšn*
 convince überzeugen, =reden *kōnvins*
 cook Koch, Köchin; kochen *kuk*
 Cook (engl. Seefahrer, † 1779) *kuk*
 cool kühl; erfrischen *kūl*
 cooper Küfer *kūpr*
 co-ordinate *kōōrdinet*
 co-operate mitwirken *kōōpērēt*
 cope with es aufnehmen, sich messen mit *kōup*
 Copernicus 1473—1543 *kōpērnikvs*
 copper Kupfer *kōpr*
 copulative *kōpūlativ*
 copy Abschrift, Exemplar; to ~ ab-schreiben; ~book Heft; ~ist Ab-schreiber; ~right Verlags Eigentum,

Nachbildungsrecht *kōpi, ~buk, kōpist, kōpirāt*
 cord Schnur *kōrd*
 core Herz, Kern *kōr*
 Coriolanus *kōriōlē'nvs*
 cork Kork; ~screw zieher *kōrkskrū*
 corn Getreide *kōrn*
 Cornelius *kōrnē'lūs*
 corner Ecke *kōrnēr*
 Cornish cornisch *kōrnš*
 Cornwall (engl. Grafschaft) *kōrnūl*
 coronation Krönung *kōronēi'sh*
 coronet Adelskrone *kōronet*
 corpse Leichnam *kōrps*
 correct fehlerfrei; to ~ verbessern; ~ness Richtigkeit *kōrekt*
 correction Verbesserung, Korrektur *kōrekšn*
 correlative *kōrē'ativ*
 correspond entsprechen; correspon-dence Briefwechsel *kōrspōnd*
 corridor Flurgang *kōridōr*
 corrupt verderben; ~ion Verderbt-heit *kōrūpt, ~šn*
 cossack Kosak *kō'sak*
 cost die Kosten, der Preis; to ~kosten; costly kostbar *kōst, kōstli*
 costume Tracht *kō'stūm*
 Cotswold Hills (Gloucestershire) *kōts'wōld*
 cottage Hütte, Bauernhaus *kōt'idž*
 cotton Baumwolle *kōtən*
 cough Husten *kōf*
 council Rat; ~lor Rat; counsellor Berater *kāūnsəl*
 count (nicht-englischer) Graf; ~ess Gräfin; ~y Grafschaft *kāūnt*
 count zählen, (dafür)halten *kāūnt*
 counterpane Steppdecke *kāūnterpēin*
 country Land; ~folk Landvolk; ~man Landmann, Landsmann; ~seat Landhaus, Schloß auf dem Lande *kōntri, ~fōlk; ~mæn*
 county Grafschaft *kāūnti*
 couple Paar; zusammenkoppeln, ver-binden *kōpt*
 couplet Reimpaar *kō'plēt*
 courage Mut *kōr'idž*
 course Lauf, Verlauf, Verfahren; of ~ natürlich *kōrs*

court Hof, Gerichtshof; ~dress Hof-
tracht *kōrt* (courtyard Hof[raum])
courtesy Höflichkeit, Artigkeit *kōrt'si*
courtly höflich *kōrtli*
cousin Vetter; Base; ~s-german,
first-~s Vettern (Basen) ersten
Grades, leibliche Vettern (Basen)
kōzn
Covent Garden Platz (ursprünglich
Klostergarten) in London *kōvənt*
cover Decke, Deckmantel, Deckel;
to ~ (be)decken, umfassen *kōvr*
Coverley (S. 166) *kōvərl*
covet begehren *kōvt*
cow Kuh *kāu*
coward Feigling; ~ly feige *kāwərd*
Cowley *kāuli*
Cowper (S. 133) *kūpər, kāupər*
cradle Wiege *krēdt*
craft Fertigkeit, Kunst; ~y ver-
schlagen, listig *kräft*
crag Klippe, Felsspitze *kræg*
Craigie (S. 6 Fußn.) geb. 1867 *krēigi*
cramp Krampf *kræmp*
create schaffen; creation Schöp-
fung; creator Schöpfer; creature
Geschöpf, Tier *kriērt, kriērtər,*
kriēšn, krūtšr
credit Guthaben, Haben *krēdit*
creek kleine Bucht *krik* [*krɪp*]
creep kriechen; ~er Schlingpflanze
cremation Leichenverbrennung; cre-
matorium ~sanstalt *krēmēšn, krē-*
mōtōriəm [mannung *krū*]
crew Schiffsvolk, Mannschaft, Be-
cricket englischer Schlagball; Grille
kriket
crime Verbrechen; criminal ver-
brecherisch, strafbar; ~law Straf-
gesetz *krām, krimnət* [*krāmīā*]
the Crimea die Krim; ~n Krim-
crimson Karmin *krimsn*
crisis Wendepunkt *krāsis*
crisp knusperig, frisch, sprühend *krisp*
critic kunstrichterlicher Beurteiler;
Beurteilung; ~al kritisch; ~ism
kritikət
cromlech Kromlech (althheidnischer
Steinfreis) *kromlek* [*krōmēət*]
Cromwell Cromwell († 1658)

crook Haken; krümmen; ~back
Büchel(iger) *kruk*
croquet Holzflugelspiel *krōkē*
cross Kreuz; (~bar Querstange,
~balten; ~bow Armbrust;) ~kreuzen,
durchqueren; ~out quer durch-
streichen; ~ing place Ausweich-
stelle *krōs, ~bōu*
crouch kriechen, sich ducken *krāutš*
crow frähen *krōu* [*krāud*]
crowd Gedränge, Menge; drängen
crown Krone, Kranz; krönen *krāun*
cruel grausam *krūt*
crusade Kreuzzug; ~r Kreuzfahrer
krasērd
crush zermalmen, ~drücken *krvš*
Crusoe (S. 160) *krūso*
cry Schrei; schreien, weinen *krāi*
crystal Kristall *kristt*
cub das Junge *kub* [*kubik*]
cube Würfel; cubic Kubit- *kub;*
cuckoo Kuckuck *ku'ku*
cuff Manschette *kuf*
cuisine Küche, Kost *kūizēn*
culminating point Höhepunkt *kōrt-}*
cult Kultus *kult* [*minētēn*]
cultivate be-, anbauen; cultiva-
tion Bebauung, Umbau; culture
Bildung, Gefittung; bilden *kōrt-}*
tivēt, kultivēšn, kultšr
Cumberland, Cumbrian *kōmbər-*
lænd, kumbriən
the Cunard Line (Schiffahrtsgefell-
schaft) *kūnārd*
cup Tasse(nopf); ~board Schrank
kup; kobərd [zügen *kōrb*]
curb Rinnfette, im Zaum halten,
cure Kur; Heilung; heilen *kūr*
curiosity Merkwürdigkeit; Rarität;
curious merkwürdig *kuriō'siti,*
kūr'ios
curl Locke; träufeln, ringeln *kōrt*
currant Johannisbeere *kōrənt*
currency Umlauf, Gangbarkeit, Ge-
läufigkeit; current laufend, gang-
bar, in Umlauf; Strom *kōrəns*
curse fluchen; ~d verflucht (§ 70 a)
kōrs
curtain Vorhang, Zuggardine *kōrtēn*
Curtmantle Kurzmantel *kōrtmæntl*

curve biegen, schweifen, krümmen)
 Curzon *kəʒən* [*kəʒv*]
 custom Gewohnheit; ~s Eingangs-
 zoll; ~er Kunde *kʌstəm*
 cut schneiden; ~down niedermachen;
 ~off abschneiden; ~Schnitt, Stich;
 ~ting Auschnitt, Durchstich *kʌt*
 cycle Fahrrad; radfahren; ~r,
 cyclist Radfahrer *saɪkl*
 cypress Zypresse *səɪprəs*
 Cyprus Cypern *səɪprəs*

dactyl, dactylic *dæˈktɪl*, *dæktɪˈlɪk*
 dagger Dolch *dæɡər*
 daily täglich *deɪli*
 dairy Milchwirtschaft *deəri*
 dais Baldachin, Hochsitz, Estrade *deəriːs*
 daisy Gänseblümchen *deɪzi*
 Dakota (U. S. A.) *dəˈkəʊtə*
 damage Schaden *dæmɪdʒ*
 damask Damast *dæˈmæsk*
 damn verdammen *dæm*
 damp feucht, nebelig; Dunst *dæmp*
 dance Tanz, tanzen; ~er Tänzer,
 ~in *dāns*
 the Danes die Dänen *deɪnz*
 danger Gefahr; ~ous gefährlich
deɪnzər; *deɪnzərəs*
 Daniel *dæˈniəl*
 Danish dänisch *deɪnɪʃ*
 dare wagen; daring kühn, ver-
 wegen; Wagemut *dæər*
 dark dunkel, verdunkeln; ~ness
 Dunkelheit, ~some dunkel *dɑːk*,
dɑːksəm
 Darwin (S. 166) *dɑːwɪn*
 dash Gedankenstrich, Schuß (kleine
 Beimischung); dahinstürmen *dæʃ*
 date Datum, Zeitpunkt; datum *plur.*
 data Angabe(n), Tatsache(n) *deɪt*,
deɪtəm; *deɪt*
 daughter Tochter *dɔːtər*
 dawn dämmern *dɔːn*
 dead tot; ~letter unstellbarer Brief;
 ~ly todbringend *ded*
 deaf taub *def*
 deal Teil *dil*
 deal (with) handeln (von), behandeln;
 ~er Händler *dil*
 dean Dekan, Dechant *din*

dear teuer, lieb; werthalten *dɪər*
 dearth Dürre *dɔːrp*
 death Tod; ~less unsterblich *deθ*
 debate Redefreit *debət*
 debt Schuld; ~or Schuldner *det*; *detər*
 decay Verfall; in Verfall geraten *dəkeɪ*
 decease Hinscheiden, Ableben, Tod;
 sterben *desɪs*
 deceitful hinterlistig; to deceive
 täuschen *dəˈstɪfʊl*; *dəsv*
 decent geziemend, anständig *dɪˈsənt*
 decide zur Entscheidung bringen,
 bestimmen *dɪˈsaɪd*
 decimal dezimal *dəˈsɪməl*
 deck Deck; (mit Sorgfalt bekleiden)
 schmücken *dek*
 declare erklären; declaration Er-
 klärung *dəˈkleər*, *dəkleˈreɪʃn*
 declension Declination *dɪˈklesən*
 decline Niedergang; deklinieren *dɪˈklaɪn*
 decompose zersetzen *dɪˈkɒmpəʊz*
 decoration Verzierung, Schmuck
dəˈkɒrɪʃn
 decry verschreiben *dəˈkri*
 dedicate widmen *dəˈdɪkeɪt*
 Dee (Fluß, Ostschottl.) *dɪ*
 deduct abziehen; ~ive aus Prämissen
 sich folgern lassend, herleitbar
dɪˈdʌktɪv
 deed Tat; Schriftstück *dɪd*
 deem halten für *dɪm*
 deep Tiefe; tief; ~en vertiefen *dɪp*
 deer geweihtragendes Hochwild;
 ~slayer Wildtöter *dɪər*
 defame schmähen, verleumden, ver-
 rufen *dəˈfeɪm*
 defeat Niederlage; besiegen *dəˈfiɪt*
 defection Abfall, defective unvoll-
 ständig *dɪˈfektʃən*, *dɪˈfektɪv*
 defence Verteidigung; defensive
 verteidigend *dəˈfens*
 defend verteidigen; ~er Verteidiger
dəˈfend
 defer aufschieben *dəˈfɜː*
 defiance Trotz *dəˈfaiəns*
 deficiency Mangel *dəˈfɪʃnsi*
 defile befudeln *dəˈfaɪl*
 definite, definitive bestimmt, end-
 gültig *dəˈfɪnɪt*, *dəˈfɪnɪtɪv*
 deflection Abweichung *dɪˈfleksən*

Defoe (S. 160) *də'fəʊ*
 deform verunstalten *dif'ɔ:m*
 degree Grad *də'grɪ*
 deity Gottheit *dɪ'ti*
 delay Verzögerung; aufschieben *də'leɪ*
 Delhi (Borderindien) *də'li*
 delicacy Zartheit; delicate zart
də'likəsi; də'li:kət
 delicious köstlich; delight Entzücken;
 entzücken, Vergnügen finden; de-
 lightful entzückend *də'li:ʃəs də'laɪt*
 delineation Abriß, Zeichnung *də'li-
 neɪʃən*
 deliver befreien; ab-, ausliefern, zu-
 stellen; ~y Ab-, Auslieferung, Be-
 stellung *də'li:vər*
 dell Tal *dɛl* [*də'li:vədʒ*]
 deluge Überschwemmung, Sündflut
 demand Forderung, Verlangen;
 demi halb *də'mi* [fordern *də'mænd*]
 demise Ableben eines Fürsten *də'maɪz*
 democracy Demokratie *dɪ'mə'krəsi*
 demonstration Vorführung, Vor-
 zeigung, Beweis; demonstrative
 hinzeigend *də'mənstreɪʃən, də'mə'n-
 strə'tɪv*
 denial Leugnung, Verneinung *də'nāɪəl*
 Denmark Dänemark *də'nmark*
 denote bezeichnen, bedeuten *dɪ'nəʊt*
 denounce anklagen, bezeichnen
dɪ'nəʊns [*də'nɪst*]
 dentist Zahnarzt; dental Zahn-
 denunciation Anklage *dɪ'nənsɪ'eɪʃən*
 deny leugnen *də'nāɪ*
 depart weg-, abgehen, scheiden;
 ~ure Abfahrt *də'pɑ:t, -ʃər*
 depend on abhängen von; depen-
 dency Nebenland; dependent ab-
 hängig; Anhänger *də'pend, də'pen-
 l*
 depict schildern *dɪ'pɪkt* [*də'nsɪ*]
 depot Niederlage *də'pəʊ*
 depravity Verderbtheit *də'præ'vɪti*
 deprive berauben, entsetzen *də'prɑ:v*
 Deptford (südöfl. Vorort Londons)
 depth Tiefe *də'pθ* [*dɛtθrɪd*]
 deputation Abordnung *də'putɪ'eɪʃən*
 Derby (Derbyshire) *dər'bi*
 derivation (Wort-)Ableitung; deri-
 vative abgeleitetes Wort; derive
 ableiten *də'rɪ'veɪʃən, də'rɪ'veɪv, də'rɑ:v*

descend herabsteigen, übergehen, ab-
 stammen ~ant Nachkomme; des-
 cent Herkunft, Gefälle *də'se'nd,*
də'sendə'nt, də'sent
 describe beschreiben, erklären, de-
 finieren; description Beschreibung;
 Art *də'skrɑ:b, də'skrɪpʃən*
 desert verlassen *dɪz'ɔ:t* (S. 281)
 desert öde, Wüste *də'sɜ:t*
 desert Verdienst; deserve verdienen;
 deservedly *adv.* verdientermaßen,
 mit Recht *dɪz'ɜ:t, dəz'ɜ:v*
 design Zeichnung, Entwurf; ~ate
 bezeichnen; ~ation Bezeichnung
dɪzɑɪn, des'ɪgneɪt, də'sɪg-nɪ'eɪʃən
 desire Wunsch, wünschen; desirous
 of wünschend *dəzəɪr, dəzəɪrəs*
 desk Pult, Schultisch *desk*
 desolate öde, trostlos; desolation
 Verwüstung, Trostlosigkeit *də'sə'let,*
dəsə'leɪʃən
 despair Verzweiflung *də'spɛər*
 despatch eilige Absendung; schnell
 abfertigen *də'spætʃ*
 desperate verzweifelt *də'sprɛ:t*
 despise verachten *də'spaɪz*
 despite Trotz *dɪ'spaɪt*
 despot willkürlicher, rücksichtslos-
 strenger Herrscher *də'spə't*
 dessert Nachtiisch *dəz'ɔ:t*
 destination Ziel Bestimmungs(ort);
 destine bestimmen; destiny Schick-
 sal *destɪ'nɪ'eɪʃən, də'stɪn, də'stɪni*
 destitute hilflos *də'stɪtʊt*
 destroy zerstören; ~er Zerstörer;
 destruction Zerstörung *də'strɔɪ,*
də'strɒkʃən [*dɪ'tɔɪʃ*]
 detach absondern, herausnehmen
 detail Einzelheit *dɪ'teɪl*
 detain zurück-, abhalten; detention
 Haft *də'teɪn, də'tenʃən*
 determine bestimmen; ~d *adj.* ent-
 schlossen; ~ determinative be-
 stimmend *dɪ'tər'mɪn, dɪ'tər'mɪnə'tɪv*
 Deuteronomy (zweite Gesetzgebung),
 das 5. Buch Moses *də'ʊtrə'nə'mi*
 develop (sich) entwickeln; ~ment
 Entwicklung *də'veləp*
 device Wahlspruch, Sinnbild; devise
 erfinden, ersinnen *də'vaɪs, tə də'vaɪz*

devoid of ermangelnd, nicht habend
dəvɔɪd
 devolve upon übergehen auf *dəvɔlv*
 Devonport *dəˈvɒnpɔrt* [*vɒʃər*]
 Devonshire (engl. Grafschaft) *dəˈvɒnʃər*
 devote widmen, weihen; ~d *adj.*
 ergeben; devotion Ergebenheit
dəvəʊt; *dəvəʊʃn*
 devour verschlingen *dəvəʊər*
 dewy taufeucht *dəʊi*
 dexterity Geschicklichkeit *dəksteˈrɪti*
 diæresis Trema (Trennpunkte z. B.
 in coöperate) *daiˈrɪsɪs*
 dial Sonnenuhr, Zifferblatt *daiˈəl*
 diameter Durchmesser *daiˈæmətər*
 diamond Diamant *daiˈmɒnd*
 dice *plur.* die Würfel *dəɪs*
 dictate diktieren, befehlen, verschreiben;
 Vorschrift; dictation Diktat; dic-
 tion Vortrags-, Ausdrucksweise
dɪˈkteɪt, *dɪˈkteɪt*, *dɪkˈteɪʃn*, *dɪkʃn*
 didactic lehrhaft; didaktisch; ~ism
 Lehrhaftigkeit; didactive lehrhaft
daiˈdæktɪk
 die, *plur.* dice Würfel *dai*
 die sterben *dai*
 differ verschieden sein, abweichen;
 difference Unterschied, Streit;
 different verschieden; differen-
 tiation Scheidung *dɪfəˈrent*, *dɪfren-
 siˈeɪʃn*
 difficult schwer(zutun); ~y Schwierig-
 keit *dɪˈfɪkəlt*
 diffusion Verbreitung *dɪfəʊʒən*
 dig (up) (heraus-)graben; digging
 Gräberei, Grube *dɪg*
 to dignify würdig machen; digni-
 tary Würdenträger *dɪɡˈnɪfai*, *dɪɡˈni-
 təri* [*dɪˈbɪdʒəns*]
 diligence Fleiß; diligent fleißig
 dim trübe; trübe machen *dim*
 din Getöse *dɪn*
 dine die Hauptmahlzeit einnehmen;
 dining-hall Speisesaal; dining-
 room Esszimmer; dinner Haupt-
 mahlzeit *daiˈn*, *dɪˈnər*
 dint Schlag, Kraft *dɪnt*
 diocese Diözese *daiˈoʊsɪs*
 dip eintauchen *dɪp*
 diphthong Doppellauter *dɪˈpθɒŋ*

diploma Urkunde *dɪˈpləʊmə*
 direct unmittelbar, gerade; richten,
 leiten, bestimmen; ~ion Führung,
 Richtung; ~ly sofort; ~or Leiter
dəɪˈrekt, *dreˈkli*, *dreˈkʃn*, *dəɪˈreːktər*
 direful schrecklich, gräßlich *daiˈrɪfʊl*
 dirigible lenkbar(er Luftballon) *dɪˈri-
 dʒəbəl*
 dirt Schmutz; ~y schmutzig *dɜrt*
 disadvantage Nachteil *dɪzədvɑːntɪdʒ*
 disappear verschwinden *dɪzəˈpiər*
 disappoint enttäuschen; ~ment Ent-
 täuschung *dɪzəˈpɔɪnt*
 disaster Unheil *dəzəˈstər*
 disc (Wurf)scheibe *disk*
 discern unterscheiden, urteilen; ~ing
 urteilsfähig, verständig *dɪzərˈn*
 disciple Schüler *dɪˈsɑːpl*
 disclose aufdecken, erschließen *dɪskləʊz*
 discontent Unzufriedenheit *dɪskəˈntent*
 discontinue aussetzen, liegen lassen
dɪskənˈtɪnjuː
 discourage entmutigen *dɪskəˈrɪdʒ*
 discourse Rede, Abhandlung *dɪskɔːrs*
 discover entdecken; ~er Entdecker;
 ~y Entdeckung *dɪskəˈvər*
 discriminating scharf unterscheidend
dɪskrɪˈmɪneɪɪŋ
 discuss besprechen *dɪskʌs*
 disease Krankheit *dɪzɪz*
 disgrace Schande; ~ful [schamlos]
dɪʃ [*dɪsgrɪs*]
 dish Schlüssel *dɪʃ*
 dishonour Schande; entehren *dɪzəˈnər*
 disjunctive *dɪsdʒʊŋktɪv*
 dislike nicht gern haben *dɪsləɪk*
 dismay entmutigen, erschrecken *dɪsməɪ*
 dismiss entlassen *dɪsmɪs*
 disobedience Ungehorsam; disobey
 nicht gehorchen *dɪsəˈbiːdɪəns*, *dɪsəˈbeɪ*
 disorder Unordnung *dɪzɔːdər*
 dispel zerstreuen *dɪsˈpel*
 dispense spenden *dɪspens*
 disperse (sich) zerstreuen
 dispirited entmutigt *dɪspɪˈrɪtɪd*
 displace verdrängen *dɪsˈpleɪs*
 display Entfaltung; entfalten *dɪsˈpleɪ*
 dispose anordnen, einrichten; ~of
 verfügen über; disposal Verfügung;
 disposition Anordnung, Anlage
dɪspəʊz, *dɪspəʊzət*, *dɪspəˈziʃn*

disposed geneigt, geeignet *dispōuzd*
 disprove widerlegen *disprāv*
 dispute Wortstreit; streiten, streitig
 machen *disprāt*
 disregard außer acht lassen, hintan-
 setzen *disrigārd*
 dissect zerschneiden, zergliedern *disekt*
 dissenter Andersdenkender; eng-
 lischer, nicht zur anglikanischen
 Landeskirche gehörender Protestant
diseñtr
 dissolve auflösen; dissolution Auf-
 lösung *dəzōlv, disolvēšn*
 dissyllabic zweisilbig *disilæbik*
 distance Entfernung; distant ent-
 fernt, entlegen *distəns, distənt*
 distinct verschieden; deutlich; -ion
 Unterscheidung, Auszeichnung; dis-
 tinguish unterscheiden, auszeichnen
distiñkt, distiñgūš
 distress Bedrängnis, Not, *distres*
 distribute verteilen *distribūt*
 district Bezirk *distrikt*
 disturb stören *distərb*
 ditch Graben *düs*
 dithyrambic schwungvoll *dipiræmbik*
 dive tauchen *dāiv*
 diverge auseinander gehen *divēr dē*
 divert ablenken, unterhalten *divōrt*
 divest entkleiden *divest*
 divide teilen, abteilen; division
 Einteilung *divārd, divižn*
 divine göttlich; Geistlicher; divinity
 Gottheit; Gottesgelahrtheit, Theo-
 logie *divāin, divinēti*
 divorce Ehescheidung *divōrs*
 do § 72; dock Dock *dok*
 doctrine Lehre *doktrin*
 document Urkunde, Schriftstück
dokwment
 dog Hund; -cart 1. Hundewagen,
 2. leichter, zweirädriger Jagd-
 wagen *dog*
 doing Verrichtung, Tat *dūiñ*
 dole verteilen, spenden
 dollar (amerik.) Taler *dolr*
 domain Gebiet *domein*
 dome Kuppel *dōum*
 Domesday-Book Landesgrundbuch
dəməzdē buk

domestic häuslich, einheimisch, in-
 ländisch *dəməstik*
 dominant herrschend; dominion
 Herrschaft, Gebiet; domination
 Herrschaft *dəminənt, dəmi'nən,*
dəminēr'sn
 Donald (Vorname) *də'nəld*
 donation Schenkung, Stiftung *dənešn*
 donkey Esel *də'ŋki*
 doom Urteil, Schicksal; -sday Ge-
 richt *dūm*
 door Tür *dōr* [richtstag *dūm*]
 dot Tüpfelchen, i-Punkt *dət*
 double doppelt; verdoppeln, zusammen-
 halten; umschiffen *dəubt*
 doubt Zweifel, zweifeln; -ful
 zweifelhaft *dāut*
 Dover (Kent) *dəuvər*
 down hinunter; Düne; -cast nieder-
 geschlagen *dāwn*
 dozen Duzend *dəzən*
 drag ziehen, schleifen *dræg*
 dragon Drache *drægm*
 drama Schauspiel mit Handlung;
 -tic dramatisch; -tist Schauspiel-
 dichter; -tization bühnenmäßige
 Bearbeitung als Drama *drāmā,*
dræmæ'tik, dræ'matist, dræmatizēr'sn
 drapery Tuchentfaltung, Stoffbehang,
 Faltenwurf *dræpəri*
 draught Wasserzug, Tiefgang *draŋt*
 draughtsman Plan-, Musterzeichner
draŋtsmən
 draw ziehen, zeichnen; -up auf-
 stellen, entwerfen; -ing-master
 Zeichenlehrer; drawing-room Ge-
 sellschaftszimmer, gute Stube *drō*
 drawers Unterhosen *drō'vz*
 dread Schrecken; -ful schrecklich;
 -naught der sich vor nichts fürch-
 tende tollkühne Wagehals *dred*
 dream Traum, träumen *drim*
 dreary trübselig, traurig *dreri*
 dregs plur. Hefe, Überrest *dregz*
 dress Kleid, Kleidung; -maker
 Damenschneider (in); -zurecht-
 machen, verbinden; (sich) ankleiden;
 hair-er Haarkünstler *dres, dres-*
mēikər hēr dresr,
 drift das Zusammengetriebene, Ge-
 stöber, Sturm *drift*

drill einexerzieren *dril*
 drink Trunk, trinken *drɪŋk*
 drip tropfen *drip*
 drive Fahrt; treiben, fahren; ~r
 Kutscher, Fahrer, *draɪv*
 drone Drohne; Müßiggänger *drəʊn*
 droop dahinsinken, hinwelfen *drəʊp*
 drop Tropfen; fallen lassen, fallen *drɒp*
 drought Trockenheit *draʊt*
 drown ertränken *draʊn*
 drudge Knecht, Packesel *drʌdʒ*
 Druid Druiden; ~ism Druidismus
 draɪd, ~ism
 drunk, ~en trunken *drʌŋk*
 drum Trommel *drʌm*
 dry trocken, trocknen; ~ness Trocken-
 heit *draɪ*
 dubious zweifelhaft *dʌ'bɪəs*
 Dublin (Irland) *dʌ'blɪn*
 duchess Herzogin; duchy Herzogtum
 duck Ente *dʌk* [*dʌ'tsəs*, *dʌ'tsɪs*]
 due gebührend; verdankt; fällig *dʌ*
 duet Zweigesang *dʌ'et*
 Duff (Familienname) *dʌf*
 duke Herzog; ~dom Herzogtum *dʌk*,
 ~dom [*abstumpfen dʌt*]
 dull stumpf, trübe, schwachfüllig; to ~
 dumb stumm *dʌm*
 Durham (Nordengland) *dʌrəm*
 during *prep.* während *dʌrɪŋ*
 dust Staub; ~er Wisch-, Staub-
 lappen; ~y staubig *dʌst*
 Dutch holländisch *dʌts*
 dutiable zollpflichtig; duty Pflicht;
 Zoll; on duty im Dienst; duty-
 free zollfrei *dʌ'tiəbl*, *dʌ'ti*
 dwarf Zwerg *dʒɔ:rf*
 dwell wohnen, verweilen; ~ing
 dye färben *dai* [Wohnung *dʒet*]
 dyke Graben, Damm, Deich *dai*
 dynasty Herrscherhaus *dai'nəsti*
 eager erpicht, begierig, eifrig *ɪgər*
 eagle Adler *ɪgl*
 Ealing *ɪ'liŋ*
 ear Ohr, Ohr *ɪər*
 earl englischer Graf *ɔ:rl*
 early früh *ɔ:li* [Dienst *ɔ:rn*]
 earn erwerben, verdienen; ~ing Ver-
 earnest ernst; ~ness Ernst *ɔ:nəst*

earth Erde; ~ly irdisch *ɔ:rp*
 ease Ruhe; erleichtern *ɪz*
 easel Staffelei, Ständer *ɪzt*
 east Osten; easterly *adj.* östlich;
 adv. ostwärts; eastern östlich;
 eastward ostwärts *ɪst*, *ɪstərli*, *ɪstərn*,
 ɪstjəd
 Eastbourne (Sussex) *ɪstbɔ:n*
 Easter (Easterday) Ostern *ɪstər*
 easy leicht, behaglich; ~chair Lehn-
 stuhl *ɪz*, ~tʃer
 eat essen; ~able essbar; ~er Esser
 ɪt, *ɪtəbl*
 ebb Ebbe; ebbes *eb*
 Ebbsfleet (Kent) *e'bzflit* [*trɪ'siti*]
 eccentricity Überspanntheit *eksən-
 tɪ'siti*
 ecclesiastical kirchlich *ɪk'kli:zjə'stɪkəl*
 Ecclesiasticus *ɪk'kli:zjə'stɪkəs*
 echo Echo; widerhallen *e'kəʊ*
 economic(al) sparsam, wirtschaftlich;
 economy Haushaltung, Wirt-
 schaftlichkeit, Sparsamkeit; eco-
 nomist Haushalter, National-
 ökonom *ekə'nɒmɪkəl*, *ɪkə'nɒmɪ*
 Eddystone (Felsenriff im Englischen
 Kanal) *e'dɪstn*
 Eden Paradies *ɪdən*
 edge Rand, Schneide, Schärfe *edʒ*
 edict Verordnung, Erlass *ɪ'dɪkt*
 edible essbar *e'dɪbl*
 Edison (Thomas Alva geb. 1847)
 ɪ'dɪsn
 Edith Edith *ɪdɪθ*
 edition Ausgabe, Auflage; editor
 Herausgeber *ɪdɪʃn*, *ɪ'dɪtər*
 educate erziehen; education Er-
 ziehung *e'dʌkeɪt*, *edʒʊkeɪʃn*
 Edward Eduard *edwəd*
 effect Wirkung, bewirken; efficient
 effective wirksam; efficiency
 Wirksamkeit, Leistungsfähigkeit
 ɪfekt, *ɪfektɪv*, *ɪfɪʃnsi*
 effort Anstrengung *e'fɔ:t*
 Egbert (Vorname) *e'gbɔ:t*
 e. g. = exempli gratia z. B. (lies:
 ɪ dɜ:z oder: for instance)
 egg Ei *eg*
 egotism Egoismus *ɛ'gɒtɪzəm*
 Egypt Ägypten *ɪdʒɪpt*
 eider down Eiderdaunen *aɪ'dər daʊn*

eighty *eti*either jeder von beiden *aiðər*

elaborate kunstvoll; elaboration

Ausarbeitung *æləˈbɒrət, æləˈbɒrēʃn*elapse verfließen *ɪləps*elbow Ellenbogen *ɪˈbɒu*El Dorado sagenhaftes Goldland
*et dɒrədo*Eleanor Eleonore *eˈlɒnər*

elect erwählen; election Wahl;

elector Kurfürst; electress Kur-
fürstin *elekt, ˈlektʃn, ˈlektər*electric(al) elektrisch; electrical en-
gineering Elektrotechnik; electric-
ian Elektrotechniker; electricity
Elektrizität *ˈelektrik(ət), ɛndʒɪˈnɪrɪŋ,*
*ˈlektriʃn, ˈlektriˈsiti*elegance zierliche Vornehmheit; ele-
gant vornehm, fein *eˈlɛɡəns*elegy Elegie (wehmütiges Klagelied)
eˈlɛdʒi [*eˈlɛmənt, ɛlɪˈmɛntəri*]

element Bestandteil; ~ary elementar }

elephant Elefant *eˈləfənt*elevate emporheben; elevated er-
höht, Hochbahn; elevator Hebe-
maschine, Aufzug *eˈləvət, eˈləvətɪd*

elf Elfe, Kobold elf

Eliot (S. 168) *ɪˈliət*Elizabeth Elisabeth; ~an elisabetha-
nisch *ɪˈlɪzəbɛθ, ɛlɪzəˈbɛθən*ellipsis Auslassung; elliptical ellip-
tisch *ɛlɪˈpsɪs*elm Ulme *elm*eloquent, beredt; eloquence Be-
redsamkeit *ɪˈləkjuənt*else anders, sonst; ~where anderswo
*els, ɛlsˈwɛər*elucidation Erläuterung *ɪˈluːsɪdēʃn*elude hintergehen, entchlüpfen; elu-
sive ausweichend *ɪˈluːd, ɪluːˈsɪv*elysian himmlisch *ɪˈlɪʒiən*embalm einbalsamieren, vor Ver-
wesung bewahren *embām*embankment Uferdamm, Staden,
Erdbwall *embæˈŋkmənt*embarras verwirren, in Verlegenheit
setzen *embæˈrɪs*emblazon verzieren *embliːzn*emblem Sinnbild; ~atic sinnbildlich
*emblem, emblemæˈtɪk*embody verkörpern *embɒˈdi*embosom einschließen *embɒˈzəm*embrace umarmen, umfassen *embrɛs*embroider sticken; ~ing, ~y Sticker-
ei *ˈembrɔɪˈdər* [*ˈmɒrɪdʒ*]

emerge auftauchen, hervorbrechen }

emergency Hervortreten, Vor-
Notfall *ɪˈmɜːdʒənsi*Emerson (S. 170) *ɛˈmɜːnsən*

emigrate auswandern; emigration

Auswanderung *ɛˈmɪgrət, ɛmɪgrēʃn*eminent hervorragend *ɛˈmɪnənt*emotion (Gemüts-)Bewegung *ɪˈmoʊʃn*emperor Kaiser; empire Reich,
Kaiserreich; empress Kaiserin*ɛˈmpərər, ɛˈmpaɪər, ɛˈmprɪs*emphasis Nachdruck; emphatic(al)
nachdrücklich, nachdrucksvoll *ɛˈm-*
*fəzɪs, ɪmfæˈtɪkəl*employ anwenden, beschäftigen;
~ment Beschäftigung, Dienst; ~erArbeitgeber, Dienstherr *ɪmˈplɔɪ*emporium Stapel-, Welthandelsplatz
*ɪmˈpɔːrɪəm*empty leer; leeren; sich ergießen *empti*enable befähigen *ɪˈneɪbl*enamel emaillieren *ɪˈnæmət*encamp lagern; ~ment Lager
*ɪˈnkæmpmənt*enchant entzücken *ɛntʃənt*enclose einhegen; einschließen; en-
closure Einhegung, Einfügung*ɪnˈkləʊz, ɪnkləʊzər* [*ɪnˈkəʊntər*]

encounter Begegnung, Rencontre }

encourage ermutigen *ɪnˈkʌrɪdʒ*

end Ende, Ziel; enden; ~ing Endung

end [*ɛndər*]

endear lieb machen; ~ed lieb, wert }

endeavour Bemühung; sich bemühen
*ɛndeɪvər*endow ausstatten *ɪndəʊ*endure ertragen, wahren *ɛndjʊər*enemy Feind, ~in *enˈmi*energetic tatkräftig; energy Tat-
kraft *ɛnərˈdʒetɪk, ɛˈnɜːdʒi*engage anwerben, annehmen; be-
schäftigen, belegen; verloben; ~mentBeschäftigung; Verlobung; ~d in
beschäftigt mit *ɛnˈɡeɪdʒ(d)*engine Maschine, Lokomotive *ɛˈndʒɪn*

engineer Ingenieur; -ing Ingenieur-
wesen *endʒinɪr*, *-nɪrɪŋ*
engraver Formschneider, Kunst-
stecher; engraving gravierte Platte,
(Kupfer-, Stahl-)Stich *engrɪvər*,
ɪnɡrɪvɪŋ
engross in großer schöner Schrift
aufzeichnen *ɪnɡrɒs*
enjoy genießen, Genuß haben von,
sich erfreuen; -ment Freude, Ge-
nuß *endʒɔɪ*, *-mənt*
enkindle entfachen, entzünden *ɪnkaɪndl*
enlarge erweitern, vergrößern; -ment
Erweiterung, Vergrößerung *ɪnlɑːdʒ*,
ɪnlaɪəndmənt
ennoble adeln, veredeln *enəʊbl*
enormous ungeheuer *ənɔːməs*
enough genug *ənʌf*
enquire sich erkundigen; enquiry =
inquiry Erkundigung *ɪnkaɪəɪər*
enshrine (wie ein Heiligtum in
einem Schreine) sorgfältig auf-
bewahren
enrich bereichern *ɪnrɪʃ*
ensure sichern *ənʃʊər*
enter betreten, eintreten in *entər*
enterprise Unternehmen *ˈentərpraɪz*
entertain unterhalten, festlich be-
wirten; -ment Unterhaltung, Be-
mirtung *entərteɪn*
enthronen auf den Thron setzen *ɪnθrəʊn*
enthusiasm schwärmerische Begeist-
rung; enthusiast Schwärmer,
Anhänger; enthusiastic begeistert
ɪnθjuːzɪəm, *ɪnθjuːzɪst*, *ɪnθjuːzɪstɪk*
entire ganz, völlig *ɪntaɪər*
entitle betiteln, berichtigen *ɪntaɪtl*
entrance Eintritt, -zug; Eingang
entrens
entrust anvertrauen *ɪntrʌst*
enumerate aufzählen *ɪnʌməreɪt*
envelope Briefhülle, Kuvert *ˈenvələp*
envious neidisch; envy Neid, be-
neiden *ˈenviəs*, *ˈenvi*
epic episch, Epos *ˈepɪk*
episcopacy bischöfliche Verfassung;
episcopal bischöflich *ˈepɪskəpi*
epistolary Brief *ˈepɪstələrɪ*
episode Episode *ˈepɪsəʊd*
epoch Epoche *ˈepɒk*, *ˈɪpɒk*

equal gleich, gleichkommend; gleichen;
equality Gleichheit; equation
Gleichung; equator Äquator *ˈiːkwəl*,
ˈekwəˈlɪti, *ˈekwəˈrɪʃn*, *ˈekwəˈrɪtər*
equitable gerecht *ˈiːkwɪtəbəl*
equivalent gleichwertig *ˈiːkwɪvələnt*
era Ära, Zeitabschnitt, -rechnung *ɪrə*
erase ausfragen; erasing-knife
Radiermesser *əreɪz*
ere conj. bevor; prep. vor *ɪər*
erect errichten *ɪrekt*
Lake Erie Erie-See (Am.) *ˈleɪk ɪrɪ*
Ernest Ernst *ˈɜːnɪst* *ˈɜːrər*
err sich (ver)irren; -or Irrtum *ɜːr*,
ˈɜːrər
erotic erotisch, Liebes- *əˈrɒtɪk*
escape Entkommen; entschlüpfen
especial besonders *ˈespeʃəl* [*ˈɛskəp*]
esquire (ein Titel, etwa =) Hoch-
wohlgeboren *ˈeskwaɪər* [*ˈɛsɪst*]
essay Versuch, Aufsatz; -ist *ˈesɪ*,
ˈesɪst
essential wesentlich *ˈesənsəl*
Essex (Grafschaft, Ostengland) *esks*
Essington (Hafen, Nordaustralien)
ˈesɪŋtən
establish einrichten, einsetzen; -ment
Errichtung, Gründung, Anstalt
ˈæstəblɪʃ
estate Stand, Besitz, Grundstück;
real - Grundeigentum *ˈestɪt*, *ˈrɪəl* -
esteem achten; estimation Schätzung
ɪˈstiːm, *ˈestɪmɪˈʃn* [*flut ˈɛstɪməɪ*]
estuary Flußmündung mit Ebbe und
etc. (S. 186) *etsɪˈtrə*
eternal ewig; eternize verewigen;
eternity Ewigkeit *ˈetərnl*, *ˈetərˈnælɪz*,
ɪˈtərnɪti *ˈɛːpɪks*, *ˈɛːpɪkəl*
ethics Sittenlehre; ethical ethisch
etiquette Etikette *ˈetɪkət*
Eton (Stadt bei Windsor) *ɪtən*
etymological etymologisch *ˈetɪmɒlə-
dʒɪkəl*
Euclid (um 300 v. Chr.) *jūˈklɪd*
Eugene Eugen *jūˈdʒɪn*
Euphues, euphuism (S. 158) *jū-
ˈfjuːz*, *jūˈfjuɪzəm*
Euripides († 406 v. Chr.) *juriˈpɪdɪz*
Europe Europa; European Euro-
päer, europäisch *jurɒp*, *jurɒpiˈən*
Euston Road (Straße in London)
justɪnɹəʊd

evade ausweichen; evasion Flucht.
 das Entkommen *veid, vveizn*
 Evan(s) (Name) *e'vən(z)*
 Eve Eva *iv*
 eve Vorabend; ~ning Abend *iv*
 even eben, gleichmäßig, gerade; selbst
 event Ereignis *vent* [sogar *ivən*]
 ever je, immer; everlasting immer=
 während; evermore immerdar
evər, e'vərlə'stɪŋ, e'vərmɔr
 every jeder; ~body jedermann;
 ~day Alltags-, tagtäglich; ~thing
 alles; ~where überall *e'vri'bɔdi,*
e'vri'piŋ, e'vri'qɪər
 evidence Beweis; evident ein=
 leuchtend, augenscheinlich *e'vidəns,*
e'vidənt
 evil böse, schlimm; Übel *ivɪl*
 evolution Entwicklung, Deszendenz
 ewe Muttersechaf *jū* [*evə'lu:ʃən*]
 ex- Ex- *eks*
 exact genau *əgzækt*
 exalted erhaben, geläutert *əgzə'tɪd*
 examination Prüfung; to examine
 prüfen, untersuchen *ɪgzə'minə'shən,*
ɪgzə'mɪn
 example Beispiel *əgzæmpl*
 exceed übersteigen, treffen; sich aus=
 zeichnen; ~ingly *adv.* außerordent=
 lich *əkseɪd*
 excel sich auszeichnen; ~lence Vor=
 trefflichkeit; ~lent ausgezeichnet
əkseɪt, e'ksələnt
 except ausgenommen; ~tion Aus=
 nahme; ~tional außergewöhnlich
əkse'pt, əkse'pʃən
 excess Überschreitung, Überschuß;
 ~ive übermäßig *əkse's*
 exchange Austausch, Umjchaltung;
 Börse; um-, austauschen *əkstʃeɪndʒ*
 excite aufregen *əksaɪt*
 exclamation Ausruf *əksklə'meɪʃən*
 exclude ausschließen *əkskləʊd*
 excommunicate in den Kirchenbann
 tun *əksklə'mju'nikeɪt*
 excursion Ausflug *əkskə'rʃən*
 excuse Entschuldigung; entschuldigen
əksku:z, tu əksku:z
 execute vollstrecken, hinrichten;
 execution Hinrichtung; executive

ausführend, vollstreckend *e'ksəkru:t,*
əkse'kru:ʃən, əgzə'kwɪv
 exemplify zeigen *ɪgzə'mplɪfaɪ*
 exercise Übung; to ~ ausüben *e'ksər-*
saɪz
 exert ausüben; ~ion Anstrengung
əgzəɪt, əgzə'rʃən
 exhibit zeigen; ~tion Ausstellung,
 Befundung *egzɪ'bɪt, əkse'bɪʃən*
 exile Verbannter *e'ksaɪl*
 exist vorhanden sein; ~ence Dasein
əgzɪst, egzɪ'stəns
 Exodus (Auszug), das 2. Buch Moses
e'ksədəs
 expand ausdehnen; expansion Aus=
 dehnung *əkspæ'nd, əkspæ'nʃən*
 expect erwarten *əkspekt*
 expedition Unternehmungszug,
 ~fahrt *əkspə'dɪʃən*
 expel vertreiben *əkspet*
 expenditure Ausgabe *əkse'ndɪtʃər*
 expense Ausgabe, Kosten *əkspens*
 experience Erfahrung; experiment
 Versuch; erproben; experimental
 Probe-; expert erfahren *əkspɪəriəns,*
əkspe'rɪmənt, (əkspɪ'ment, əkspərt)
 expire vercheiden, sterben *əkspəɪər*
 explain erklären; explanation Er=
 klärung; explanatory erläuternd
əkspleɪn, əkspleɪnə'shən, əkspleɪnətər
 explicative Füllwort *e'ksplə'tɪv*
 exploration Erforschung; to explore
 erforschen; ~r Forschungsreisender
əksploreɪʃən, əksploər
 exponent Erklärer, Darsteller; ex=
 pose aussetzen; exposition Aus=
 einandersetzung *əkspəʊnənt, əkspəʊz,*
əkspəʊzɪʃən
 export (S. 281) Ausfuhr, ausführen
 express ausdrücken; ~ion Ausdruck;
 ~iveness Ausdrucksfähigkeit *əkspres,*
əkspre'shən, əkspre'sɪvənəs
 exquisite auserlesen *e'kshɪzɪt*
 extend (sich) ausdehnen, sich erstrecken;
 extension, extent Ausdehnung;
 extensive ausgedehnt, weit *əkstend,*
əkstenʃən, əkstent, əkste'nɪv
 external äußerlich *əkstər'nəl*
 extol erheben, preisen *əkstəʊlt*
 extra außerdem, besonders *ekstrə*

extract Auszug; to ~ herausziehen
e'kstrəkt, tu əkstrəkt
 extraordinary außerordentlich; Ex-
 trausgabe, -blatt *əkstrədɪnəri*
 extravagance Überspanntheit; extra-
 vagant überpannt *əkstrəvɒɡənt*
 extreme äußerst; extremity äußerste
 Ende *əkstri:m, əkstrə'miti*
 eye Auge *ai*

fabrie Fabrifat *fæ'brɪk* (factory
 Fabrif *fæ'ktəri*)
 fable Fabel; fabulous fagenhaft
fæbl, fæ'bʊləs
 façade Vorderseite *fæsəd*
 face Gesicht; full ~ ganz von vorn;
 side- ~ von der Seite, Profil;
 to ~ die Stirn bieten, ins Gesicht
 jehen; ~ing gegenüber *fēs*
 facility Leichtigkeit *fəsi'liti*
 fact Tatsache; ~or Umstand von Be-
 deutung, Hauptpunkt *fækt*
 faction politische Partei *fæk'shən*
 factory Fabrif *fæ'ktəri*
 faculty Fähigkeit, Fakultät *fæk'lti*
 fade vergehen, verbleichen *fæd*
 fail fehlschlagen; verfehlen; failure
 Ausbleiben, Fehlschlagen, Fälli-
 ment, Bankrott *fæil, fæiljər*
 faint matt, schwach; ohnmächtig
 werden *fæint*
 fair Jahrmarkt, Messe *fēr*
 fair hell(blond), schön, angemessen,
 annehmbar (ziemlich gut, genügend);
 ehrlich *fēr*
 Fairmount *fēr'maʊnt*
 fairy Fee; ~land Feenland *fēr'ilənd*
 faith Glaube; ~ful gläubig, treu;
 ~less treulos; ~lessness Treu-
 losigkeit *fæp, fæp'ləsəs*
 Falkland *fæklənd*
 fall Fall; fallen *fəl* [*fæ'lsɪ, fəls*]
 fallacy Täuschung, Trug; false falsch
 fame Ruhm, Ruf *fæm*
 familiar heimlich, (ver)traulich, leut-
 selig; family Familie *fæmi'lər,*
fæ'mili
 famine Hungersnot *fæ'min*
 famous berühmt *fæməs*
 fan Fächer; fächeln, schwingen *fæn*

fancied vermeintlich; fancy Phantasie,
 Neigung, Laune, Mode, eleganter
 Luxus; fancy sich einbilden; fanci-
 ful wunderbarlich *fæ'nsɪd, fænsi*
 fantastical phantastisch *fæntə'stɪkəl*
 far fern, weit *fɑr*
 fare Fahrpreis; gehen, fahren, reiten,
 ergehen; sich befinden *fēr*
 farewell lebe wohl *fērweɪl*
 farm Pachtgut, Ackerhof; ~er Acker-
 wirt; ~ing Ackerbau *fɑrm*
 farther weiter *fɑðr*
 farthing Heller *fɑrðɪŋ*
 fascinate bezaubern, bestricken
fæ'sineɪt
 fashion Mode, Art; bilden, gestalten
 ~able modisch, fein *fæʃən*
 fast fest; schnell; ~en befestigen; ~en
 on to sich anflammern an *fæst, fæsn*
 fat fett; Fett *fæt*
 fatal verhängnisvoll, tödlich; fate
 Geschick, Schicksal; fated seinem
 Schicksal verfallen, dem Tode ge-
 weiht *fetəl, fet, fetɪd*
 father-in-law Schwiegervater *fɑðr*
inlə
 fatherland Vaterland *fɑðr'lənd*
 fatigue Ermüdung *fetɪg*
 fault Fehler; ~y fehlerhaft *fəʊlt*
 Faustus *fə'stʊs*
 favour Gunst; to ~ begünstigen; ~able
 günstig; ~ite begünstigt, Lieblings-
fəvər, fə'vərəbl, fə'vərɪt
 Fawkes (Anstifter der Pulverver-
 schwörung, † 1606) *fəks*
 fear Furcht; fürchten; ~ful fürchter-
 lich; ~less furchtlos *fēr*
 feasibility Ausführbarkeit; feasible
 ausführbar *fizi'bɪlɪti, fizi'bəl*
 feast Festtag *fist*
 feat Tat, Kraftstück, Kunststück *fet*
 feather Feder; ~ed befiedert *fedər*
 feature Gesichtszug, Merkmal *fitsər*
 federal Bundes-; federation Bünd-
 nis *fədərəl, fedreri'shən*
 fee Gebühr, Lohn, Honorar *fi*
 feed (sich) nähren, beköstigen *fid*
 feel fühlen; ~ing Gefühl *filɪŋ*
 feet siehe foot § 27.
 Felicia (Vorname) *feli'siə*

felicity Glückseligkeit *fɛlɪˈsɪti* [stōw]
 Felixstowe (Suffolk, Nordsee) *fɛlɪks*
 fellow Burſche; Mitglieb; ~citizen
 Mitbürger; ~creature Mitgeſchöpf;
 ~ship Kameradſchaft; ~weaver
 Kollege eines Webers *fəˈlo, -sɪˈtɪzən,*
-tʃɪˈvər [fɛˈmɪnɪn]
 female, feminine weiblich *fɛˈmɛɪt,*
 fence Einfriedigung, Gehege, Zaun
fens
 fender Ramingitter, ~vorſeher *fendər*
 Ferdinand *fərdɪˈnənd*
 ferry Fährre; ~boat Fährboot *fəˈri,*
-bɔʊt
 festal feſtlich; festival Feſt; festivity
 Feſtlichkeit *feſtəl, feſtɪˈvɪti, feſtɪˈvɪt*
 feud Lehen; ~al feudal; ~alism Lehnſ-
 weſen *fjuːd, -əlɪzəm* [haſtet *fɪvər*]
 fever Fieber; ~ish mit Fieber beſ-
 fickle unbeſtändig *fɪkl*
 fiction Erdichtung, Proſadichtung;
 fictitious erdichtet *fɪkʃən, fɪkʃɪˈʃəs*
 fief Lehen, Lehngut *fɪf*
 field (Schlacht-)Feld *fɪld*
 Fielding *fɪldɪŋ*
 fierce wild *fɪəs*
 fiery feurig *fɪəri*
 Fife (ſchott. Graſſchaft) *fɪf*
 fight Kampf; kämpfen, bekämpfen *fɑɪt*
 figurative figürlich, bildlich; figure
 Figur, Geſtalt; Ziffer, Zeichen
fɪɡər, fɪɡʊərətɪv
 filch ſtehlen, maufen *fɪltʃ*
 filial kindlich *fɪˈlət*
 fill füllen; ~in auß- *fɪl*
 final ſchließlich, endgültig; End-, am
 Ende, auslautend; die Abſicht auß-
 drückend *fəɪnəl*
 financier Geldmann *fɪˈnɑːnsɪər*
 fine ſchön, fein *fəɪn*
 finger Finger *fɪŋɡər*
 finish Abſchluß, Beendigung; Voll-
 endung; beendigen, abſchließen *fɪˈnɪʃ*
 finite verb Verbum finitum *fəɪˈnɪt*
 fir Kiefer, Tanne *fɪər*
 fire Feuer, Kaminfeuer; (ab-, an-)
 feuern; ~light Feuerſchein; ~place
 Kamin; ~side Herd; ~works
 Feuerwerk *fɪər*
 firm Firma *fɜːm*

firm feſt *fɜːm*
 firth Förde, Meerbuſen, Seearm *fɜːp*
 fish Fiſch, =; fiſchen
 fit geeignet; paſſen, paſſend ausrüſten;
 ~up einrichten; ~ting Zubereitung,
 Einrichtung, Zubehör; ~ful un-
 gleichmäßig, wechſelvoll *fɪt*
 fix feſtſetzen; ~ed feſt, feſtſtehend,
 unbeweglich *fɪks*
 flag Flagge; ~ship Admiralsſchiff;
 ~staff Flaggenſtange *flæg*
 flame Flamme *flɛɪm*
 Flanders Flandern *flæˈndərz*
 flank Seite *flæŋk*
 flannel Flanell *flænəl*
 flash aufblitzen; blißen *flæʃ*
 flask Pulverhorn *flæsk*
 flatter ſchmeicheln *flætər*
 flat flach; Stagenwohnung *flæt*
 flax Flachs *flæks*
 flee fliehen *fli*
 fleecy wollig *flis*
 fleet Flotte *flɪt*
 fleet flüchtig, flink; verfliegen *flɪt*
 flesh Fleiſch *fleʃ*
 flexional veränderbar *flɛksɪˈnəl*
 flight Flucht; Flug *flaɪt*
 fling ſchleudern; Schleuderer (ſchott.
 Tanz) *flɪŋ*
 flint Feuerſtein *flɪnt*
 flirt ſchäkern, kokettieren; ~ation
 Liebelelei *flɔːt*
 float ſchwimmen, treiben *fləʊt*
 flock Schar Herde *flɒk*
 flood Flut, Überſchwemmung; über-
 ſchwemmen *flʊd*
 floor Fußboden; Stockwerk *flɔː*
 floral badges Blumenwahrzeichen
flɔːl bædʒɪz
 Florentine *flɔːrɪntaɪn*
 florin Gulden *flɔːrɪn*
 flour Mehl *flaʊər*
 floss (dialektiſch) Fließ, Bach *flɒs*
 flourish blühen *flaʊrɪʃ*
 flow Flut; fließen, fluten *fləʊ*
 flower Blume *flaʊər* [tʃwɛɪˈʃn]
 fluctuation Wogen, Schwanfen *flʊk-*
 fluency Geläufigkeit; fluent ge-
 läufig *flʊˈɪnsɪ*
 Flushing Bliſſingen (Holland) *flʊʃɪŋ*

flute Flöte *flut*
 fly Fliege, besondere Art vornehmer
 Einspannerkutschge; fliegen *flāi*
 flying-machine Flugmaschine *flāi'ing*
 foam schäumen *fōum* [*mə'shū'n*]
 foe Feind *fōu*
 fog Nebel; -gy nebelig *fog, fəgi*
 foil zu Boden werfen, vereiteln *fōit*
 fold Falte; -up zusammenfalten; -er
 Karte, Fahrplan zum Zusammen-
 legen *fōld*
 foliage Laubwerk *fōuliədʒ*
 folio Foliant *fōliu*
 folkstone (Kent) *fōukstn*
 folksong Volkslied *fōuksəŋ*
 follow folgen; -er Begleiter, Ge-
 folly Torheit *fəl* [folgs'mann *fə'lo*]
 fond zärtlich-liebevoll; -of einge-
 nommen von; -ness Eingenommen-
 heit, Vorliebe *fənd*
 food Nahrung *fud*
 fool Narr; -ish töricht; -ness Tor-
 heit *fūl, fūliʃ*
 foot Fuß; -man Latzi; -note Fuß-
 note; -path Fußweg; -print
 Fußspur; -step Fußstapfe *fūt*
 for *prep.* für; *conj.* denn *fōr*
 forbid verbieten *fə'bid*
 force Kraft, Macht, Gewalt; zwingen
 forcible gewalttätig; *fōrs, fōrsibl*
 fore vorder; -cabin zweite Kajüte;
 -finger Zeigefinger; -head Stirn
fōr, fō'rəd [*fōrin, fō'rinər*]
 foreign fremdländisch; -Ausländer
 foremost vorderst, erst *fōr'məust*
 foresee vorhersehen, ahnen *fōrsi*
 forest Wald *fōrəst*
 forethought Vorbedacht *fōr'pəut*
 forfeit verwirken *fə'fst*
 forge schmieden *fōrdʒ*
 forget vergessen; -me-not Vergiß-
 meinnicht *fə'get*
 forgive verzeihen, vergeben *fə'giv*
 fork Gabel *fōrk*
 forlorn verloren *fə'lɔrn*
 form Form, Gestalt, Formular,
 Bordruck, Schulbank, Schulklasse;
 bilden; -al förmlich; -ation Bil-
 dung *fōrm* [*fōrmər*]
 former ersterer, ehemalig, früher

formula Formel *fōrmulə*
 Fors Clavigera (S. 166) *fōrs*
kləvɪ'dʒərə
 forsake im Stich lassen *fərsəik*
 fort Schanze, befestigtes Vorwerk *fōrt*
 forth fort, hervor *fōrθ*
 fortify stärken, befestigen *fōrtɪfaɪ*
 a fortnight vierzehn Tage *fōr'tnaɪt*
 fortress Festung *fōrtres*
 fortunate glücklich; fortune Geschick,
 Glück; Vermögen *fōrtʃənət, fōrtʃən*
 forward vorwärts; weiterbefördern,
 nachsenden *fōrwəd*
 foster ernähren, aufziehen, pflegen
fəstər [*fə'dʒrɪŋgeɪ*]
 Fotheringay (Northamptonshire)
 found gründen; -ation Gründung;
 Grundlage, Begründer *fəʊnd, -ɪ'ʃn*
 foundling Findling
 fountain Quelle; -head Jung-
 brynnen *fəʊntɪn*
 fourscore achtzig *fōr'skɔr*
 fourwheeled vierräderig *fōr'hwiːld*
 fowl Geflügel *fəʊt*
 fox Fuchs *fəks*
 fraction Bruch *f'rekʃən*
 fragment Bruchstück *f'regmənt*
 fragrant wohlriechend *f'reɪgrənt*
 frame Rahmen, Gestell, Bau *f'reɪm*
 France Frankreich; Frankish frän-
 kisch *f'ræns, f'rænkɪʃ*
 Frances Franziska; Francis Franz
f'rænsəs, f'rænsɪs
 frank freimütig *f'rænk* [*f'rænkblɪ*]
 franklin Freisasse, Gutseigentümer
 fraught befrachtet, beladen *f'rəʊt*
 Frazer *f'reɪzər*
 Fred Fritz; Frederick Friedrich
f'red, f're'drɪk [*fri, -dəm*]
 free frei, befreien; -dom Freiheit
 freeze frieren *friːz*
 French französisch; -ify französisieren;
 -man Franzose *f'rentɪʃ*
 frenzy Raserei [*tə f'ri:keɪnt*]
 frequent häufig; besuchen *f'rekwənt,*
 fresh frisch *f'reʃ*
 friar Ordensbruder *f'raɪər*
 friction Reibung *f'riksən*
 friend Freund, -in; -ly freundlich, be-
 freundet; -ship Freundschaft *frend*

frighten in Schrecken setzen; fright-

ful schrecklich *fräitən, fräitfət*

frigid kalt *fridʒid*

Frisian friesisch *friʒiən*

frock-coat Gehrock *frok kəut*

frog Frosch *frog*

frolic Scherz; scherzen *frɔːlik*

front Vorderseite, Vorder- *frʌnt*

frontier Grenze *frʌntiə*

frost Frost *frost*

Froude *frud*

frown on düster ansehen, düster drein-

schauen, zuwider sein *frəʊn*

fruit Frucht; Obst; -age Obsternte;

-ful fruchtbar; -less fruchtlos *frut*

frustrate vereiteln, vernichten *frʌˈstreɪt*

fry rösten *frāi*

fugitive Flüchtling *fʌˈdʒɪtɪv*

full voll; -face ganz von vorn;

-ness Fülle *ful fēis*

fulfil erfüllen *fuːlɪʃ* [*fʌŋksən*]

function Verrichtung, Dienstleistung

fund Kapital, Geldsumme; -amental

Grund- *fʌnd, fʌndəˈmentl*

funeral Totenfeier *fʌˈnerəl*

fun Spaß; -ny komisch, spaßhaft

funnel Trichter *fʌˈnəl* [*fʌnɪʃ*]

fur Fell, Pelz *fɜː*

furious wütend, rasend *fʌˈrɪəs*

furl austuchen, einziehen *fɜːt*

furnace Ofen *fɜːnəs*

furnish ausstatten, möblieren; liefern;

furniture Ausstattung; Einrich-

tung *fɜːnɪʃ, fɜːnɪʃər*

furrow Furche *fʌˈro* [dies *fɜːdər*]

further ferner, weiter; -more über-

fuse einschmelzen; fusion Ver-

schmelzung *fʌz, fʌˈzən*

futile nichtig; futility Nichtigkeit

fʌtɪl, fʌˈtɪl, fʌtɪˈlɪ

future Zukunft; zukünftig; futurity

Zukunft *fʌtʃər, fʌtʃəˈrɪtɪ*

gable Giebel *ɡeɪbl* [*ɡeɪn*]

gain Gewinn, Verdienst; gewinnen

Galatian Galater *ɡəˈleɪʃən*

gale frischer Windstoß, Sturm *ɡeɪl*

Galen (medizin. Schriftst. 130—200)

ɡeɪlən [gegen Damen *ɡəˈlənt*]

gallant tapfer; artig zuvorkommend

galleon Galeone *ɡəˈleɪən*

gallery Galerie, Reihe *ɡæˈləri*

galley Galeere, Schiff *ɡæˈli*

gallon Gallone (4,54 Liter) *ɡælən*

gallop galoppieren *ɡæləp*

gamble spielen *ɡæmbəl*

gambel Luftsprung; hüpfen, tanzen,

springen *ɡæmbəl*

game Spiel; Wildbret *ɡeɪm*

Ganges Ganges *ɡæˈndʒɪz*

gap Lücke *ɡæp*

garage (Unterjchlupf) Boot-, Eisen-

bahn- und Kraftwagenjchluppen

ɡəˈrɑːʒ

garb Kleidung, Tracht; -ed gekleidet

garden Garten *ɡɑːdn* [*ɡɑːb(d)*]

Gareth *ɡæˈrɪʃ*

garland Girlande, Blumengewinde

ɡɑːlənd

garment Gewand *ɡɑːmənt*

garnish garnieren, schmücken *ɡɑːnɪʃ*

Garrick *ɡæˈrɪk*

garter Strumpfband, Hosenband *ɡɑːtər*

gas Gas; -bracket seitlich an

der Wand befestigter Gasarm;

-fittings, -fixture Gaseinrichtung,

-arm; -pendant von der Zimmer-

decke herabhängender Gasarm *ɡæs*

Gascony die Gascogne *ɡæˈskɒni*

gate Tor, Pforte *ɡeɪt*

gather (ein)sammeln, (sich) ver-

sammeln; -ing Signal zum

Sammeln, Sammelruf, Sammlung

ɡæðər, ɡæðərɪŋ [haft *ɡəði*]

gaudy flitterhaft aufgepußt, prunk-

Gaul Gallien; Gallier *ɡɔːl*

Gaunt (engl. Adelsgeschlecht) *ɡəʊnt*

gay heiter *ɡeɪ*

gaze at anstarren *ɡeɪz*

gazette Amtsblatt *ɡəˈzet*

gear das Getriebe an einer Maschine,

die Übertragung *ɡɪər*

gem Edelstein *dʒem*

Geikie (geb. 1835) *ɡeɪˈki*

gender = le genre Geschlecht *dʒendər*

genealogical die Abstammung be-

treffend, Stamm-; genealogy

Stammbaum *dʒenəˈlədʒɪkəl, dʒenəˈlədʒi*

general Feldherr; allgemein *dʒenərəl*

generate erzeugen, entstehen lassen;
 generation Geschlecht *džen'nrēit*,
džen'rēi'sn
 generous edel, vornehm, großmütig,
 freigebig; generosity Edelmut,
 Freigebigkeit *džen'nrus*, *džen'ro'siti*
 genitive Genetiv *džē'ntiv*
 Geneva Genf *džē'nivā*
 genius Schutzgeist, Geist *džim'ius*
 Genoa Genua; Genoese genuesisch
džen'noā, *džē'nōiz*
 genre Art, Stil, Kunstart *žānr'*
 gentle sanft, milde, freundlich, edel;
 gentlemanly von edler Gesinnung
 und vornehmerm Benehmen *džentl*
 gentry niederer Adel *džentri*
 genuine echt *džē'nwān*
 Geoffrey Gottfried *džefr'*
 geographer Geograph; geography
 Erdkunde *džio'grəfər*
 geometrical geometrisch; geometri-
 cian Geometer; geometry *džio-*
metrikəl, *džiom'tri'sn*, *džio'm'tri*
 George Georg *džōrdž*
 German Deutscher; deutsch; -ic;
 -y Deutschland *džōr'mən*, *džōr-*
mæ'nik, *džōr'mōni*
 gerund Gerundium *džēr'und*
 get 40,33; ~ on weiterkommen, er-
 gehen *get'ən*
 ghost Geist *gōust*
 giant Riese *džā'nt*
 gibbon (Gibbon-)Affe *gib'n*
 Gibraltar Gibraltar *džibr'ō'tl'*
 gift Gabe, Geschenk; ~ed begabt *gift*
 gigantic riesig *džāigæ'ntik*
 Gilbert (engl. Reisender, † 1845)
gilb'rt
 gild vergolden *gild*
 gird, girth (sich) gürten; Gurt
 girl Mädchen *gōrl* [*gōrd*, *gōrp*]
 give geben; ~ up aufgeben; ~ way
 nachgeben *giv*
 Glace Bay 72, 4 *glēs bēi*
 glacier Gletscher *glēs'šir*
 glad froh; ~den erfreuen *glæd*, *glæd'n*
 gladiator Kämpfer *glæ'diə'tər*
 Gladstone 1809—1898 *glæ'dstən*
 glance Blick, blicken *glāns*
 glare blendender Glanz *glē'r*

glass Glas *glās*
 glazier Glaser *glēiz'jər*
 gleam Strahl, strahlen *glīm*
 glen enge Tal, Schlucht *glēn*
 glide gleiten *glāid*
 glimmer Schimmer *glim'r*
 glimpse Blick *glimps*
 glitter glänzen *glit'r* [*glō'ab*]
 globe Globus, Erdball; Lampenglocke
 gloom Dunkelheit; düster sein; ~y
 dunkel *glūm*
 glorify verherrlichen; glorious ruh-
 m-voll; glory Ruhm, Herrlichkeit
glō'rifi, *glō'rius*, *glō'ri*
 glossary alphabetische Worterklärung
glō'səri
 Gloucester (Gloucestershire) *glōst'r*
 glove Handschuh *glōv*
 glow glühen *glōw*
 Goa Goa (Borderindien) *gōwā*
 goal Markspahl, Ziel, Zweck *gōult*
 goat Ziege *gōut*
 god Gott; ~dess Göttin *gōd*
 godfather, godmother Pate, Patin
gōd
 gold Gold; ~en golden; ~smith
 Goldschmied *gōul'd*
 golf (Spiel) *gōlf*, *gōf*
 gong der Gong, das Lamtam (chines.
 Metallscheibe mit dröhnendem
 Schalle) *gong*
 good gut, tauglich; Wohl; ~s Güter;
 ~ness Güte, Frömmigkeit *gud*
 Good Friday Karfreitag *gud'frā'di*
 good-bye § 86 h. 1 *gud'bāi*
 goose Gans; ~berry Stachelbeere
gūs, *gū'zbəri*
 gorge Schlucht *gōrdž*
 gorgeous prunkhaft *gōrdž'us*
 gospel Evangelium *gospəl*
 gossip Klatsch *gossip*
 Gothic gotisch *gō'pik*
 gout Gicht *gāut*
 govern regieren; ~ance, ~ment Re-
 gierung; ~or Statthalter *gōv'n*
 gown (langer) Rock, Talar *gāwn*
 grace Gnade, Tischgebet, Anmut;
 ~ful reizend; gracious gnädig *grēs*,
grēs'us [*džūəl*]
 gradual stufenweis, allmählich *græ'.*]

graduate akademisch graduiert; graduiieren *græ'djuət*, *t* *græ'djuəit*
 Graham (Person) *grē'm*
 grain Samenform, Kernfrüchte, Getreide *grē'm*
 grammar Grammatik; ~school Gymnasium *græ'mər*
 gramme Gramm *græ'm*
 Granada Granada *grənā'dā*
 grand großartig; ~child Enkelkind; ~duchy Großherzogtum; ~son Enkel *grænd*, ~*sn*
 granite Granit *græ'nit*
 grant gewähren *gränt*
 grape Traube *grēp*
 graphic anschaulich, plastisch *græ'fik*
 grapple anflammen *græpl*
 Grasmere (Westmoreland) *græ'smɪər*
 grasp Griff; greifen *gräsp*
 grass Gras *gräs*
 grate Gitter, Rost *grēt*
 grateful dankbar; gratify befriedigen; gratis unentgeltlich; gratitude Dankbarkeit; gratuitous umsonst *grēitfʊl*, *græ'tɪfai*, *grē'tɪs*, *græ'tɪbʊd*, *græ'tɪʊts*
 grave Grab *grēv*
 grave ernsthaft *grēv*
 gravel Kies *græ'vəl*
 Gravesend (Kent, Nordsee) *grē'vzænd*
 gray grau *grēi*
 grease Fett; einsetzen; greasy fettig, schmierig *grīs*, *grɪzɪ*
 great groß, Größe; greatly sehr; ~ness Größe *grēit*
 greatcoat Überzieher *grē'tkōut*
 Greece Griechenland; Greek Grieche; griechisch *grīs*, *grɪk*
 green grün; ~grocer Grünframhändler; ~house Gewächshaus *grɪn*; *grō'sər*
 Greenwich (Vorstadt Londons, Kent) *grɪ'ndʒ*, *grē'ndʒ*
 greet grüßen *grɪt*
 Gregorian gregorianisch; Gregory Gregor *grə'gɔrɪən*, *grə'gɔrɪ*
 grenadier Grenadier *grənə'dɪər*
 grief Gram, Beschwerde; grievance Beschwerde, Kummer; grieve klagen, beschweren; grievous

schmerzlich, beschwerlich *grɪf*, *grɪ'vns*, *grɪv*, *grɪvns*
 grip Griff *grip*
 grocer Krämer, Materialist *grō'sər*
 Grocyn 1442—1519 *grō'sɪn*
 groove Rinne, Hohlkehle *grōv*
 gross Groß (12 Duzend) *grō's*
 grotesque wunderbar, grillenhaft
 grotto Grotte *grō'to* [*grē'tsk*]
 ground Grund, Boden, Platz, Anlage; Ursache; gründen *grāund*
 group Gruppe; gruppieren *grūp*
 grouse Moorhuhn
 grove Hain *grōv*
 grovel kriechen *grōvəl*
 grow wachsen, werden; anbauen; growth Wachstum *grōʊ*
 grumble murren *grʊmbəl*
 Guana *gu-ā'nā*
 guarantee verbürgen, schützen *gærnti*
 guaranty Bürgschaft *gærnti*
 guard Wache, Garde, Schutztruppe *gārd*; hüten; ~ian Beschützer; Schutz *gārd*; ~*ɪən*
 guess raten *ges*
 guest Gast *gest*
 Guiana *gi-ā'nā*
 Guicowar *gi'kəʊər*
 guide Führer; führen, anleiten, lenken; guidance Führung *gād*
 guilty schuldig *gɪlti*
 Guinea Guinea; guinea früher Geldmünze, seit 1817 Rechnungsmünze *gɪni*
 gulf Golf, Meeresbucht *gʊlf*
 Gulliver *gʊ'lɪvər*
 gum gummieren *gʊm*
 gums Zahnfleisch *gʊmz*
 gun Kanone, Flinten; ~ner Kanonier; ~powder Schießpulver; ~shot Kanonen-, Flintenschuß *gʊn*, ~*pʊndər*
 guttural aus der Kehle kommend, Kehle *gʊ'trəl*
 Guy Guido; Veit *gāi*
 gymnasium Turnhalle; gymnastic gymnastisch, Turn-; ~s Turnen *dʒɪmnə'sɪəm*, *dʒɪmnə'stɪk*
 habit Gewohnheit; Kleidung *hæ'bɪt*
 Hades *hæ'dɪz*

hail Hageln *hēit*
 hail begrüßen *hēit*
 hair Haar; ~dresser Haarschneider;
 hairy haarig *hēr, hēri*
 half, halve (S. 282) *hāf, hāv*
 half-holiday freier Nachmittag *hāf*
 half-penny halber Penny *hēip-ni*
 hall Halle, Saal *hōt*
 hallow heiligen *hælo*
 ham Schinken *hæm*
 hamlet Dörfchen, Weiler *hæmlt*
 hammer Hammer *hæmər*
 Hammersmith *hæmərsmiþ*
 hamper verstricken, behindern *hæmpər*
 Hampshire *hæmšər*
 Hampstead (nordwestl. Vorstadt Londons) *hæmstəd*
 hand Hand, Zeiger; at the ~ of
 auf Veranlassung von, durch; at ~
 nahe; einhändigen; ~ over hin-
 überreichen *hænd*
 handkerchief Taschentuch *hæŋkətʃif*
 handwriting Handschrift *hændraɪtɪŋ*
 handsome hübsch, schön *hænsəm*
 hang hangen *hæŋ*
 Hanover Hannover; ~ian hannöversch
 hæ'nvər, hænvər'iən
 Hanseatic League die Hanse; Hanse-
 atic town Hansestadt *hænzæ'tik lig*
 hansom zweirädrige Droschke *hænsəm*
 hapless unglücklich *hæpləs*
 happen geschehen *hæpən*
 happy glücklich; happiness Glück-
 seligkeit, Glück *hæpi, hæ'pɪnəs*
 harbour Hafen *hæbər*
 hard hart, schwer; ~ly schwerlich,
 kaum; ~ship Ungemach; ~ware
 Eisenwaren *hård*
 hare Hasе *hēr*
 Hargreaves (Erfinder der Spinn-
 maschine, † 1778) *här'grvz*
 hark! horch! *härk*
 harm Schaden, Leid *härm*
 harmony Einflang; harmonious
 wohlklingend *härmən, härmōw'nɪs*
 Harold (altengl. König, † 1066)
 hæ'rəld
 harp Harfe *harp*
 Harry Heinz *hæ'ri*
 harsh rauh, abstoßend *härʃ*

hart Hirsch *hært*
 harvest Ernte *hærvəst*
 Harward *här'wərd*
 haste Eile, eilen; hasten eilen;
 ~on beschleunigen *hēist, hēisn*
 Hastings (Suffex) *hēistɪŋz*
 Hastings (engl. Staatsmann, † 1818)
 hēistɪŋz
 hasty hastig, eilig *hēisti*
 hat Hut *hæt*
 Hatfield *hæt'fild*
 hatch aushefen *hætʃ*
 hate hassen; hatred Haß *hēt, hēitrid*
 haughty hochmütig, stolz *hōti*
 haul ein- und aufziehen, aufholen *hōt*
 Havelock (britisch-ostind. Feldherr,
 † 1857) *hæ'vələk*
 haven Seehafen *hēvn*
 Hawaii (Inselgruppe im Stillen
 Ozean) *hə'wāri*
 Hawkins (Seefahrer, † 1595) *hō'kɪnz*
 Hawthorne (S. 171) *hō'þɔrn*
 head Haupt, Kopf, Spitze; anführen,
 leiten; ~ache Kopfschmerz; ~ing
 Überschrift; ~land Landzunge,
 Vorgebirge; ~master Direktor;
 ~quarters Hauptquartier, ~ort *hed,*
 ~*ēik, ~mæstər*
 health Gesundheit; ~y gesund *helþ*
 heap Haufen, anhäufen; heapeen
 hinzutun *hēp, hēpən*
 hear hören, abhören; ~er Zuhörer *hēr*
 heart Herz; by ~ auswendig; ~y
 herzlich, herzhast, derb *hært, hærti*
 hearth Herd; ~rug Kaminteppeich *hærþ*
 heat Hitze, heizen; ~er Heizvorrich-
 tung *hit, hītər*
 heathen heidnisch; Heide *hēðən*
 heather Heidekraut *hedər*
 heaven Himmel; ~ly himmlisch *hevn*
 heavy schwer *hevi*
 Hebrew hebräisch *hēbrū*
 Hebrides Hebriden *he'brɪdɪz*
 hedge Hecke *hedʒ*
 heed beachten *hid*
 heel Ferse, Hacken *hīl*
 height Höhe *hāit*
 heir Erbe; ~apparent gesetzmäßig
 nächster Erbe *ēr, æp'e'rənt*
 Helen Helene *he'lən*

hell Hölle *het*
 helm Steuerruder *helm*
 helmet Helm *he'lmət*
 help Hilfe, helfen; ~less hilflos
help, help's

Hemans (Dichterin, † 1835) *hē'mənz*

hemp Hanf *hemp*

hen Henne *hen* [fort *hens*]

hence von hier, daher; ~forth hin-)

Hengist (Führer d. Angelsachf.) *heng'ist*

Henley (Oxfordshire) *he'nle*

Henry Heinrich *hen'ri*

heptarchy Heptarchie *heptark'i*

herald Herald; ~ry Wappenfunde]

herb Kraut *hārb* [*he'rəld'ri*]

herd Herde *hārd*

Herbert *hārbərt*

hereby hierdurch, hiermit *hēr'bāi*

hereditary erblich, Erb- *here'ditəri*

Hereford (Herefordshire) *he'rəfərd*

heretic Ketzer, ~in; ~al ketzerhaft

he'rətik, hərə'tikət

heretofore bisher *hērətəfər*

Hereward *hērəwərd*

Herne Hill *hərn'hil*

hero Held; ~ic heldenmütig; ~ine

Heldin; ~ism Heldentum *hēr'o,*

herō'w'ik, hēr'oin, hēr'oizm

Herodotus Herodot, † ca. 406 v. Chr.

herə'dotəs

hew hauen *hū* 6, 30

hiccough Schluckauf *hikəp*

hidden versteckt *hidən*

hide (sich) verstecken *haid*

high hoch; ~flown hochfliegend;

~ness Höheit; ~wayman Straßen-

wärter *hai, hāin's*

hill Hügel, Berg *hit*

Hindoo Hindu *hi'ndu*

hint Wink, Fingerzeig *hint*

hire Feuer, das Mieten, Löhnung]

hiss zischen *his* *hā'ər*]

historian Geschichtschreiber; historic,

historical geschichtlich; history Ge-

schichte *histō'riən, histō'rikət, hi'stō'ri*

hit treffen *hit*

hither hierher; ~to bis hierher *hi'dər*

hoar eisgrau *hōr*

hoard sammeln *hōrd*

Holborn (Stadtteil Londons) *hōubərn*

hold Halt; take ~ of erfassen, er-
 greifen; to ~ (ab-)halten; ~ good
 gelten; ~ out aushalten; ~ all
 Handgepäck=Traghülle *hōuld*

hole Loch *hōul*

holiday Feiertag; ~s Ferien *hō'lidə*

hollow hohl, ~ Hohlheit *hō'lo*

holly Stechpalme *hō'li*

Holmes 11, 28 *hōlmz*

holy heilig *hōuli*

homage Huldigung *hō'mədʒ*

home Heimat, Wohnung; ~less

heimatlos; ~rule einheimische

Selbstregierung, Selbstverwaltung;

~ward heimwärts; ~work häus-

liche Schularbeit *hōum*

Homer *hōu'mər*

homonym *hō'mōnim*

Honduras *həndū'rəs*

honest ehrlich; ~y Ehrlichkeit *ə'nəst*

honey Honig *hō'nə*

Hongkong (brit. Insel, Süd-China)

həŋkəŋ

honour Ehre, ehren; honorable

ehrenwert; honorary ehrenvoll,

Ehren- *ə'nər, ə'nərəbl*

hoof Huf; ~beat Hufschlag *hūf, ~bit*

hook Hafen *hūk*

hop Hopfen *həp* [*hōup*]

hope Hoffnung; ~for hoffen auf]

horizon Gesichtskreis; ~tal wage-

recht *hər'əizən, hə'rizəntəl*

horn Horn *hörn*

horror Abscheu *hō'rər*

Horsa (Führer der Angelsachsen) *hōrsə*

horse Pferd; on ~back zu Pferde,

reitend; ~man Reiter *hōrs*

hose Schlauch *hōuz*

hospitable gastfrei *hə'spitəbl*

host Wirt *hōust*

host Kriegsheer; hostile feindlich;

hostility Feindschaft *hōust,*

hə'stəit, həstib'ti

hot heiß *hət*

hotel Gasthaus *hote'l*

hour Stunde *auər* [house *haʊz*]

house häus, houses *hāuziz;* to]

household Haushalt, Familien-;

~economy Haushaltungsfunde

hāus'hōuld

houyhnhnm *hūi'nim*

Howard (engl. Admiral, † 1624)

hāw'ord

howdah (oft zeltartiger) Sitzkorb auf dem Rücken eines Elefanten *hāudā*

however *adv.* wie auch immer; *conj.*

indessen, jedoch *hāue'vvr*

howl heulen, klagen *hāut*

Huddersfield (Yorkshire) *hū'drɜ:fild*

Hudson (U. S. A.) *hʊdzn*

hue Farbe *hū* 6, 30

huge ungeheuer groß *hūdʒ* 6, 30

Hughes *hūz* 6, 30

hulk Schiffsrumpf *hʊlk*

Hull (Yorkshire, Nordsee) *hʊl*

hullo hallo! *hʊlʊ*

human menschlich (humane menschenfreundlich *humən'n* S. 279);

~ist(ic), ~itarian menschenfreundlich; ~ity edle Menschlichkeit, Gesittung und Bildung *hūmən, hū'mə-*

nist, hūmən'ist'ik, hūmən'tē'riən, hūmən'iti

Humber *hʊmbər*

humble bescheiden; demütigen *hʊmbəl*

Hume *hjum* 6, 31

humid feucht *hūm'id* 6, 30

humiliation Demütigung *hūmili'eɪʃn*

humorist Humorist *hūmər'st*

Humphrey Humphried *hʊmfrɜ*

hundredweight Zentner *hʊndrəd'wɛɪt*

Hungary Ungarn *hʊŋgri*

hunger Hunger; hungry hungrig

hʊŋgər, hʊŋgrɪ

hunt Jagd, jagen; ~er, ~sman

Jäger *hʊnt*

hurl schleudern *hɜrt*

hurrah Hurra *hʊrər*

hurry Eile, Eilen; eilen *hʊrɪ*

hurt verletzen *hɜrt*

husband Gemahl; ~ry Haushaltung,

wirtschaftliche Sparsamkeit *hʊzbənd*

hush! ft! sch! to ~ zum Schweigen

hut Hütte *hʊt* [bringen *hʊʃ*]

Huxley *hʊksli* [har'dɪz]

Hyades Hyaden, Siebengestirn

hybrid Bastard, unecht *hā'brɪd*

hygiene Gesundheitslehre *hā'dʒi:n*

hymn Loblied, Kirchenlied *him*

Hypatia *hā'pə'tiə*

hyphen Bindestrich *hā'fn*

hypotenuse Hypotenuse *hā'pə'tɪnʊs*

hypothetical hypothetisch *hā'pə'tet'ɪkəl*

iambic *ā'æ'mb'ɪk*

ice Eis; ~chest, ~safe Eisschrank

ā'is, ~tʃest, ~seɪf

Iceni brit. Volksstamm *ā'sɪ'nā'i*

Idaho (Staat, U. S. A.) *ā'də'hə*

idea Gedanke, Vorstellung; ~l Vor-

bild höchster Vollkommenheit; ideal;

~ism *ā'dɪ'ə, ā'dɪ'əl'ɪzəm*

identical *ā'den'tɪkəl*

idle unnützlich, faul; ~r Müßiggänger,

Faulenzer; ~ness träg *ā'dl*

idiomatical einer Sprache eigentüm-

lich, den eigenartigen Sprachgeist

veranschaulichend *ī'dɔ'mæt'ɪkəl*

idolater Götzendiener *ā'də'leɪtər*

idyll dichterisch = schöne Ausmalung

der ländlich-einfachen Anspruchs-

losigkeit des (Hirten-)Lebens; Hirten-

gedicht *ā'dɪl*

i. e. (=id est) zu lesen: that is

(to say) das heißt

ignore nicht wissen *īg-nō'*

Ilfracombe (Nord-Devonshire) *ī'lfrɔ-}*

liad Iliade *ī'liəd* [kām]

ill schlimm, krank, übel, übel; ~ness

Krankheit; ~treat mißhandeln *īl,*

īl'nəs, ~trɪt

illiberal engherzig *ī'l'brəl*

Illinois (Staat, U. S. A.) *ī'l'noɪs*

illuminate erleuchten, bunt aus-

malen; illumination Beleuchtung;

illusion Täuschung, Wahn *īlū-*

m'net, īlū'mɪn'eɪʃn, īlū'zən

illustrate veranschaulichen, illu-

strieren; illustration Veranschau-

lichung; illustrious glänzend, er-

laucht *ī'l'vstrɪt, īl'vstrɪs*

image Bild; imaginary, imagina-

tive nur gedacht, nur in der Ein-

bildung bestehend (nicht wirklich);

imagination Einbildungskraft;

to imagine (sich) einbilden *īm'dʒ,*

īm'æ'dʒɪ'nəri, īm'æ'dʒɪ'nətɪv, īm'dʒɪ-

nē'ʃn, īm'æ'dʒɪn

imitate nachahmen; imitator Nach-

ahmer; imitation Nachfolge *īm'etɪt*

immediate unmittelbar, sofortig; ~ly
 sofort *im'diət*
 immense ungeheuer *imens*
 immerse eintauchen, versenken *imōrs*
 immortal unsterblich; ~ity Unsterb-
 lichkeit; to ~ize unsterblich machen
imōrtəl, imōrtæ'li
 immovable unbeweglich *imāvəbl*
 impair verschlechtern, beeinträch-
 tigen *impēər*
 impart mit-, zuteilen, geben *impärt*
 impatient ungeduldig *impē'šənt*
 impeachment die Zur-Verantwortung-
 ziehung, (öffentliche) Anklage
 (gegen verantwortliche Staats-
 beamte) *imprɪ'tʃmənt*
 impede hindern, hemmen *impid*
 imperative Befehlsform; imperial
 kaiserlich; ~ism Weltreichsherr-
 schaft, Verbindung aller englisch-
 rebenden Kolonien mit Groß-
 britannien zu einem Kaiserreich;
 imperious gebieterisch *impē'riəv,*
imprɪ'riət, imprɪ'riəs
 imperfect unvollkommen; ~ion Un-
 vollkommenheit *impər'fekt, im-*
pər'feksən
 impetuous ungestüm *impe'tjuəs*
 impetus Antrieb *imptəs*
 imply in sich schließen, enthalten *implā'*
 import einführen *impōrt* (S. 281)
 importance Bedeutung; important
 wichtig *impōrtəns, impōrtənt*
 importunity belästigendes Drängen,
 Zudringlichkeit *impōrtū'niti*
 impose auferlegen; imposing Ach-
 tung und Bewunderung erregend
impō'uz
 impossible unmöglich *imposə'bl*
 impress beeinflussen; ~ion Ein-
 druck; ~ive eindrucksvoll *impres,*
impreʃən
 improbable unwahrscheinlich *im-*
prə'əbl
 improve (on) Verbesserungen machen
 (an), (sich) bessern; ~ment Ver-
 besserung *impru:v(mənt)*
 impulse Antrieb *impts*
 inaccuracy Ungenauigkeit *inækjərəsi*
 inanimate leblos *inæ'nimət*

inattention Unaufmerksamkeit *inæ-*
te'nʃən
 inaugurate einweihen, feierlich be-
 ginnen *inō'gureit*
 incandescent weißglühend *inkənde- }*
 inch Zoll *intʃ* [*sɪnt*]
 incident Vorfall, Ereignis *insɪ'dənt*
 inclination Neigung; inclined ge-
 neigt *inklɪnēr'sən, inklaɪnd*
 incisive einschneidend *insä'sɪv*
 include einschließen *inklud*
 incomplete unvollständig *inkəmplɪt*
 incorporate zu einer gesetzlichen und
 politischen Körperschaft vereinigen,
 als eine mit Korporationsrechten
 ausgestattete Gesellschaft eintragen
inkōr'poreit
 incorrect unrichtig *ink'rekt*
 increase (sich) vermehren; Ver-
 mehrung *inkrɪs*
 incredulity Ungläubigkeit *inkrɪ'djulɪ*
 indeed in der Tat *indəd*
 incur anlegen, auf sich laden *inkər*
 indefinite unbestimmt *indəfɪnɪt*
 independence Unabhängigkeit; inde-
 pendent unabhängig *indəpendəns*
 India Indien; ~n Indianer, Indier;
 indianisch, indisch *ində, indən*
 indicate anzeigen, angeben; indi-
 cation Anzeichen, Merkmal, Dar-
 stellung *indəkeɪt, indəkeʃən*
 indigo indisch-blau *indəgo*
 indirect indirekt *ində'rekt* [*səbɪ*]
 indispensable unerlässlich *indəspe'n- }*
 indistinct undeutlich *indəstɪŋkt*
 individual einzeln, persönlich; ~ism
 Individualismus *indəvɪdʒuəl*
 indomitable unbezähmbar *indəmɪtəbl*
 indoors drinnen *indəʊr*
 indubitable unzweifelhaft *indəvɪtəbl*
 inductive induktiv *indəvktɪv*
 industrial gewerblich; industrious
 fleißig, betriebsam; industry Ge-
 werbebetrieb, Gewerbfleiß *indəv-*
striət, indəstri
 inevitable unvermeidlich *inəvɪtəbl*
 infancy erste Kindheit, Unmündig-
 keit; infant kleines, noch sprach-
 loses Kind *ɪnfənsɪ, ɪnfənt*
 infantry Fußvolk *ɪnfəntri*

infect anstecken; ~ion Ansteckung, Seuche; ~ious ansteckend *infekt*, *infekšvs*
 inferior (to) niedriger (als); untergeordnet *infirior*
 infinite unendlich *infinit*
 infinitive Infinitiv; infinitival infinit *infinitiv*, *infinitival*
 inflected flektiert; inflexion Flexion, inflectional flektierbar *inflektid*, *inflekšn*
 influence Einfluß, beeinflussen; influential einflußreich *influens*, *influenšt*
 influx Einfließen, Einmündung *infloks*
 inform benachrichtigen; ~ation Nachricht, Belehrung *inform*, *informišn* [*informət*]
 informal nicht formell, ungezwungen
 ingenuity Scharfsinn, Wiß, Genie *indžnjūti* [*titūd*]
 ingratitude Undankbarkeit *ingræ* }
 inhabitant Einwohner *inhæbitant*
 inherit erben; inheritance Erbschaft *inherit*, *inheritans*
 inimitable unvergleichlich *inimitəbl*
 initial Anfangs; ~ly anlautend; ~s Anfangsbuchstaben *iništ*
 injunction Anweisung *indžvŋkšn*
 injure beschädigen; injurious nachteilig; injury Beschädigung *indžr*, *indžūrius*, *indžəri*
 ink Tinte; inkwell, inkpot Tintenfaß *ink*, *inkvæt*, *inkpot*
 inland Binnenland; landeinwärts }
 inn Herberge; Gasthof [*inland*]
 innate angeboren *in-næt*
 inner innerer *inr*
 innocence Unschuld; innocent unschuldig *innsens*
 innumerable zahllos *inūmərəbl*
 inquire = enquire
 inquisitive nachforschend; neugierig *inkviziitiv*
 inroad feindlicher Einfall *inrōud*
 inscribe ein-, aufschreiben, widmen; inscription Zn-, Aufschrift *inskrāb*, *inskri'pšn*
 insect Insekt *insekt* [*insensibl*]
 insensible unmerklich, unbemerkt

inseparable unzertrennlich *insepərəbl*
 inset Einfaß, Einfügung, Nebenkarte *insət*
 inside innerhalb *insaid*
 insidions tückisch *insidəns*
 insignia Abzeichen *insignia* [*fikənt*]
 insignificant unbedeutend *insig-ni-* }
 insipid abgeschmact *insipid*
 insist upon dringen auf *insist*
 insolent unverschämt *insolənt*
 inspect be(auf)sichtigen; ~ion Aufsicht *inspekt*, *lekšn*
 inspire einflößen; begeistern *inspāir*
 instance Beweis, Beispiel *instəns*
 instant Augenblick *instənt*
 instead of anstatt *instəd*
 instinct Trieb, Neigung; ~ive unwillkürlich *instinkt*
 institute einsetzen, errichten, stiften; Einrichtung; institution Einrichtung, Anstalt *institut*
 instruct unterrichten; ~ion Unterricht *instrukt*, *instrukšn*
 instrument Werkzeug; ~al instrumentāl, ~mentāl
 insular Insel *insulər*
 insulated abgeondert, isoliert *insulətid*
 insurance Versicherung *insūrans*
 intellectual geistig; intelligence Einsicht; intelligent flug *intelektšvəl*, *inteldžəns*
 intend beabsichtigen; intense angespannt, heftig; intensify verstärken; intensity Anspannung, Stärke; intention Absicht *intend*, *intens*, *intensifai*, *intensšn*
 inter beerdigen *intər*
 intercede for eintreten für *intərsəd*
 interchange austauschen, für einander einsetzen; ~able austauschbar *intərtšəindž*
 interest Interesse, Zinsen; ~ed eigen nützig; ~ing interessant *intərəst*
 interfere with sich einmischen in *intərfər* [*laut intərdžekšn*]
 interjection Ausruf, Empfindungs- }
 intermediate vermittelnd *intərmədijət*
 interminable unendlich *intərminəbl*
 international international *intərnə'sjənəl*

interpose einschieben in *interpōuz*
 interpret auslegen; interpreter
 Dolmetsch *intār'prēt, intār'prētər*
 interrogative fragend; ~sentence
 Fragesatz *intēr'gätiv*
 interrupt unterbrechen; interruption
 Unterbrechung *intēr'p't*
 interval Zwischenraum, Pause *in-
brvət*
 interweave untermischen *intēr'wēv*
 intimacy herzliche Vertraulichkeit;
 intimate innig vertraut; to inti-
 mate zu verstehen geben *i'ntiməsi,
i'ntimət, tu i'ntimēt*
 intolerant unduldsam; intolerance,
 intoleration Unduldsamkeit *intō-
lərent, intō'lərens, i'ntōlə'rei'sən*
 intramural innerhalb der Stadt-
 mauern, im Innern der Stadt
intrəm'wərl
 intrepid unerschrocken; ~ity Un-
 erschrockenheit *intrep'id; intrep'i'diti*
 introduce einführen; introduction
 Einführung, Vorstellung *intrədū's,
intrədū'kən*
 intrust anvertrauen *introst*
 invade einfallen in; ~er Angreifer;
 invasion feindlicher Einfall *invē'id,
invē'izən*
 invent erfinden; ~ion Erfindung;
 ~ive erfinderisch; ~or Erfinder
invent, inven'sən
 invert umkehren; ~ed commas Gänse-
 füßchen, Anführungszeichen *invərt*
 invest bekleiden, belehnen *invest*
 investigation Erforschung *investi-
gē'sən*
 invigorate kräftigen *invī'g'reit*
 invincible unbefiegbar *invinsib'l*
 invisible unsichtbar *invī'zibl*
 invitation Einladung; to invite
 einladen *invitē'sən, invərt*
 invoke anrufen *invōuk*
 Ireland Irland; the Irish die Iren;
 Irish irisich *ā'ər'lənd, ā'riš*
 irksome verbrießlich, lästig *ērksəm*
 iron Eisen; ~clad Panzerstich;
 ~mongery Eisenfram, ~handel
ā'ərn, ~kləd, mən'gəri
 irreparable unersetzlich *irē'pərəbl*

irregular unregelmäßig *irē'gylər*
 irritate reizen, ärgern *iritēt*
 Irving *ā'vīŋ*
 Isabella Isabella *izə'bəlā*
 island, isle Insel *ā'lənd, ā'it*
 Islington (Stadtteil Londons) *izlīŋtən*
 isolated isoliert, abgedichtet *ā'sləitəd*
 issue erlassen, heraus-, ausgeben,
 veröffentlichen; Nachkommenchaft;
 Ergebnis, Streitfragen, Ausgabe
i'su
 Italian italienisch; Italy Italien
itəl'ian, itəl
 item adv. desgleichen; subst. der
 einzelne Posten, Punkt; Einzelheit
ā'itm
 Ivanhoe (engl. Ritter) *ā'vənhō*
 ivy Efeu *ā'vi*

Jack 1) Hans, Häschen — 2) jack
 ein Junge, der einem hilft oder
 zur Hand geht, — a jack-tar
 Teerhans = Schiffsjunge, Matrose,
 Teerjacke — 3) jack ein Instru-
 ment, das zur Verrichtung einer
 Arbeit mithilft, — a boot-jack
 Stiefelnecht; a kitchen-jack
 automatischer Bratenwender —
 4) the British Jack oder the
 Union Jack die britische National-
 flagge mit den drei übereinander-
 liegenden Kreuzen des Heiligen
 Georg, des Heiligen Andreas und
 des Heil. Patrick; the American
 Jack = Teil der amerikanischen
 Unionsflagge (ohne die stripes,
 also nur mit den stars) *džæk*
 jacket Jacke *džæk'it*
 Jane Hännchen *džēn*
 James Jakob *džeimz*
 Japan Japan; ~ese Japaner; japa-
 nisch *džəpə'n, džəpən'iz*
 Jason *džē'sən*
 jaw; jaws Kiefer, Kinnlade; Schlund,
 Rachen *džō*
 jealous eifersüchtig; ~y Eifersucht
džē'ləs
 jenny (Hännchen) Feinspinnmaschine
 Jehovah *džə'hōvə 12, 28 [džē'ni]*
 Jeremy Jeremiaß *džē'rəmi*

Jerome Hieronymus *džer'm*
 New Jersey (Staat, U.S. Am.) *džərzi*
 Jerusalem *džer'us'lem*
 Jessica *džes'ika*
 Jesus *džiz'us*
 jew Jude *džu*
 jewel Kleinod, Geschmeide; mit
 Edelsteinen schmücken; -ler Gold-
 schmied *džu'el* [vativer *džingo*]
 jingo chauvinistischer Hochkonfer-
 Joan Johanna *džoun*
 Job Hiob *džoub*
 job Lohnarbeit, Stück Arbeit *džob*
 John Lackland Johann ohne Land
 1199—1216 *džon la'klənd*
 Johnson *džon'sn*
 join verbinden; sich in Verbindung
 setzen mit, sich anschließen an *džoin*
 joint Fuge, Gelenk *džoint*
 jolly lustig, vergnügt *džoli*
 Jonathan *džon'əpən*
 Jones *džounz*
 Jonson *džon'sn*
 jotting flüchtig hingeworfene Be-
 merkung *džot'ing*
 journal Tagebuch; -ist Zeitungs-
 schreiber; journey (S. 278) Reise,
 reisen *džə'ni*, *džə'ni* [*džə'ni* (v)]
 Jove Jupiter; jovial aufgeräumt
 joy Freude; -ful freudig; -ous
 fröhlich *džoi*, *džə'us*
 jubilee Jubelfeier *džub'li*
 Judas Iscariot *džu'dəs iskə'riot*
 judge Richter; richten; judgment
 Urteil *džudž*, -ment
 jug Krug *džug*
 Julian julianisch; Julius Julius
džul'ən, *džul'əs*
 jump springen *džəmp*
 junction Vereinigung, Eisenbahn-
 Knotenpunkt *džə'njəksn*
 jungle Dschungel *džəngl*
 junior jünger *džun'ior*
 jurisprudence Rechtswissenschaft
džur'isprədəns
 just adj. gerecht, richtig; adv. ge-
 rade; -ice Gerechtigkeit, Gericht
džəst, *džəstis*
 Justinian Justinian *džəsti'n'ion*
 the Jutes die Jüten *džuts*

kangaroo Känguruh *kəŋgru'*
 Katharine Katharina *kæ'pərin*
 Keats (Dichter, † 1821) *kits*
 keen scharf *kɪn*
 keep halten, sich halten; bleiben;
 -ing Obhut, Gleichmaß, richtiges
 Verhältnis; -er Halter, Verwalter,
 Wärter, Aufseher; -sake Andenken
kɪp [*kendət*]
 Kendall (austral. Dichter, † 1882)
 Kenilworth (Warwickshire) *kə'nɪl'wɜrθ*
 kettle Kessel *kett*
 key Schlüssel; -less ohne Schlüssel *kɪ*
 Kew (Surrey) *kju*
 khedive Khedive *kɪ'div*
 kid Zicklein; -glove Glacehandschuh
 kidnap Menschen rauben, entführen;
 kidnapped (S. 169) die Seereise
 wider Willen *kɪ'dnæp*
 kill töten, schlachten *kɪl*
 kilometre Kilometer *kɪlə'mɪ'tə*
 kilt (Art kurzer Unterrock der Hoch-
 landsschotten) *kɪlt*
 kin Verwandtschaft *kɪn*
 kind Art; gütig; -ness Güte,
 Freundlichkeit *kəɪnd*, *kəɪndnəs*
 kindle anzünden *kɪndl*
 kindred verwandt *kɪndrəd*
 king König; -dom Königreich, Reich
kɪŋ, -dom
 Kingsley *kɪŋzli*
 kinsfolk Verwandtschaft *kɪ'nzfolk*
 kiss Kuß, küssen *kɪs*
 kitchen Küche *kɪtʃn*
 knave Schurke; knavish schurkisch
nɛv, *nɛvɪʃ*
 knee Knie *nɪ*
 knell Totenglocke; Glockengeläut *net*
 Knickerbocker *nɪ'kɪnbəkər*
 knife Messer *nəɪf*
 knight Ritter; -hood Ritterwürdel
 knob Knopf *nɒb* [*nəɪt*]
 knock (an)schlagen *nɒk*
 knot Knoten (1853, 248 m) *nɒt*
 know kennen, wissen; knowledge
 Kenntnis, -nisse *nəʊ*, *nəɪdʒ*

label Etifette, angefestetes (aufge-
 flebtes, angehängtes) Kennzeichen,
 Zettelaufschrift *leɪbəl*

labour mühevoll Arbeit; arbeiten;
 ~er Arbeiter; laborious mühevoll
læbər, læbʻrɪns
 Labrador *læbrədər*
 lace Spitzen, Borte, Treffen *leɪs*
 lack Mangel; vermiffen (lassen);
 ~land ohne Land *læk*
 lad Bursche *læd*
 ladder Leiter *lædər*
 lager (beer) deutsches Exportbier;
 leichtes nach deutscher Art in Eng-
 land eingebrantes Bier *læɡər(bɪər)*
 lake See; Lakist Dichter der See-
 schule *leɪk, leɪkɪst*
 Lalla Rokh *læləˈrɪk*
 lamb Lamm *læm*
 lament beklagen *læmənt*
 lamp Lampe, Leuchte *læmp* [*kæʃər*]
 Lancashire (engl. Grafschaft) *læˈnʃər*
 Lancaster (Lancashire); Lancastrian
læˈnkæstər, læˈnkæstriən
 land Land; landen; ~ing Treppen-
 absatz; ~lord Gutsbesitzer; ~scape
 Landschaft *lænd, læˈndlɔːd, lænds-*
 lane Gasse *leɪn* [*kɛɪp*]
 language Sprache *læŋɡwɪdʒ*
 languish verschmachten *læŋɡwɪʃ*
 lantern Laterne *læˈntərən* [*bɛːt*]
 lapel Rockaufschlag am Kragen *læˈpəl*
 lapse Verlauf *læps*
 large groß; ~ly in der Gesamtheit;
 at ~ insgesamt *lɑːdʒ*
 larynx Kehlkopf *læˈrɪŋks*
 lash Peitschenhieb *læʃ*
 last lebt; at ~ endlich *læst*
 last dauern *læst*
 late bisherig, vormalig; verstorben;
 spät, zu spät; ~ly neuerdings *leɪt*
 lath Latte *læθ* [*læɪn*]
 Latin lateinisch; ~ism Latinismus
 latitude geogr. Breite *læˈtɪtʊd*
 Latium *læˈtɪəm*
 latter letzterer *læˈtər*
 laugh lachen; ~er Gelächter *læf*
 laureate mit Lorbeer bekränzt; poet
 ~ lorbeergekrönter Dichter; laurel
 Lorbeer *lɔːriəl, lɔːrəl*
 Laurence *lɔːrəns*
 lavatory Waschraum *læˈvətəri*
 law Gesetz; ~ful gesetzmäßig *lɔː*

lawn Rasenplatz *lɔːn*
 St. Lawrence Lorenzstrom *sɪnt lɔːrəns*
 lawyer Sachwalter, Rechtsanwalt
 lay Lied *leɪ* [*lɔːr*]
 lay legen; ~ low erschlagen; ~ out
 anlegen; to be laid up with er-
 franken an *leɪ*
 lazy träge *leɪzi*
 lb. = (lateinisch) libra = pound
læbrə
 lead Blei; ~en bleiern *led*
 lead führen; Führung; ~er Führer
 Leiter; ~ship Führung *lɪd, ~ər*
 leaf Blatt, Laub *li:f*
 league la ligue Liga, Bündnis *li:g*
 league la lieue die Wegstunde (meist=
 three miles and a half) *li:g*
 lean sich anlehnen *li:n*
 leap Sprung; springen; *li:p*
 learn lernen; ~ed gelehrt; ~ing
 Gelehrsamkeit *lɔːn; ~id, ~iŋ*
 least geringst *li:st*
 leather Leder *ledər*
 leave Erlaubnis, Abschied; verlassen;
 ~ behind zurücklassen; ~ off auf-
 hören, stehen bleiben *li:v(bɪhəˈvɪnd)*
 lecture Vorlesung, Vorlesungen
 halten; ~r Vorleser, Dozent *leˈkʃər*
 ledge aus dem Erdreich heraustreten-
 des nacktes Felsenriff, vorspringender
 Felsenrand *ledʒ*
 lee Hefe *li*
 Leeds (Yorkshire) *li:dz*
 left links; ~ noch übrig gelassen, noch
 übrig geblieben *left*
 leg Bein *leg*
 legacy Vermächtnis *leˈɡəsi*
 legal gesetzlich; ~ity Gesetzmäßigkeit
li:ɡəl, li:ɡəˈbɪti
 legation Gesandtschaft *leɡəˈʃən*
 legend Legende, Sage *leˈdʒənd*
 Leghorn Livorno *leˈɡ hɔːn*
 legible leserlich, lesbar *leˈdʒəbəl*
 legion Legion *liˈdʒən*
 legislature Gesetzgebung *ledʒɪˈslætʃər*
 leisure Muße *leˈʒər*
 Leith (Schottland) *li:θ*
 lemon Zitrone *lemən*
 lend leihen; ~er Verleiher *lend*
 length Länge; at ~ schließlich *leŋθ*

Lent Fastenzeit *lent*
 St. Leonards (Suffex) *sint le'nərdz*
 less weniger; -er geringer, kleiner
les, -ər
 lesson Lektion, Lehrstunde, Lehre *lesn*
 lest damit nicht *lest*
 let lassen, vermieten *let*
 letter Buchstabe, Brief; -s Literatur,
 Wissenschaften *letər*
 levee Morgenempfang *le'və*
 level Niveau; wagerecht, flach; gleich-
 mäßig, schwebend, unentwegt, gut;
 to ~ ebnen; ~ at streben nach *levət*
 lever Hebel *livər*
 levy Erhebung *lev'i*
 Lewes *lū'is* [*grəfər*]
 lexicographer Lexikograph *leksikə-ʃ*
 liable to unterworfen, verpflichtet zu
lā'əbl
 liberal liberal; -ism Liberalismus;
 liberty Freiheit *li'brət, libər'ti*
 librarian Bibliothekar; library Bib-
 liothek *lā'brəriən, lā'brəri*
 lice Läuse *lās*
 license Freiheit, Ungebundenheit,
 Zügellosigkeit, Genehmigung, Ge-
 merbeschein; -d konzeffioniert, be-
 rechtigt *lā'səns*
 lick lecken, prügeln *lik*
 lid Deckel *lid*
 lie liegen, lügen; Lüge *lai* [*li'dz*]
 liege (lord) Lehnsheer, oberster Herr
 lieutenant Leutnant *lefte'nənt*
 life Leben *laif* [*lift*]
 lift Aufzug, Fahrstuhl; hochheben
 light leicht(wiegend) *laɪt*
 light Licht; licht, hellfarbig; an-
 zünden, (er)leuchten; to ~en blitzen;
 to lighten up erleuchten; light-
 house Leuchtturm; lightning Blitz;
 lightning-conductor Bliskableiter
laɪt(n), laɪtnɪŋ kəndrə'ktər
 like gleich, gleichwie; -ly wahrschein-
 lich; -ness Abbild, Bild; -wise
 gleichfalls *laɪk(nəs)*
 like gern haben *laɪk*
 Lilly *li'li*
 lily Lilie *li'li*
 limb Glied *lim*
 lime Kalk; Linde *laɪm*

limit Grenze; beschränken; -ation
 Einschränkung; -ed mit be-
 schränkter Haftung *li'mit*
 Lincoln (Lincolnshire; Präsident der
 Ver. Staaten 1809—1865) *lɪŋkən*
 line Linie, Zeile; befehen *laɪn*
 linen Leinen; Wäsche *li'nən*
 linger zögern, zaudern *lɪŋgər*
 linguist Sprachkundiger *lɪŋɡwɪst*
 link Glied (einer Kette); verketteten *lɪŋk*
 lion Löwe *laɪ'ən*
 lip Lippe *lip*
 liquor Flüssigkeit; Liqueur *li'kər*
 Lisbon Lissabon *lɪzbən*
 lisp mit der Zunge anstoßen *lɪsp*
 list Liste *list*
 list horchen, hören; -en hören,
 lauschen *list, lɪsn*
 literal buchstäblich, wörtlich *li'tərəl*
 literature Literatur; literary lite-
 rariſch *li'tərə'sər*
 little klein; wenig *lɪtl*
 live leben, wohnen; living Lebens-
 unterhalt *liv* [Bieh *laɪv*]
 live lebendig; -ly lebhaft; -stock
 livelihood Lebensunterhalt, Aus-
 kommen; to make one's ~ sein
 Auskommen haben *laɪvli'hud*
 livelong lange dauernd *li'vələŋ*
 livery Pferdeverpfllegung, -vermie-
 tung; -stable Mietstall *lɪvərɪ'steɪbl*
 Llandudno (Wales) *hləndrə'dno*
 Llewellyn (wallisiſcher Fürst) *hlue'wɪn*
 Lloyd *lɔɪd*
 lo, loo! sieh! *ləu*
 load Last, Bürde; laden *ləʊd*
 loaf Laib Brot *ləʊf*
 loan Darlehen *ləʊn*
 lobby Vorhalle, -saal *lə'bi*
 local örtlich *ləʊkəl*
 loch See (in Schottland) *lək*
 Lochiel; Evan Cameron of ~ (ſchott.
 Anführer im Aufstande gegen Crom-
 well 1652); Donald Cameron of
 ~ (ſchott. Anführer in der Schlacht
 bei Culloden 1746) *lə'kiɪt*
 lock Schloß; Schleuse; ~ up zu-
 schließen; -smith Schlosser *lək*
 (sm:ʃ)
 Locke *lək*

locomotion Ortsveränderung, Trans-
port; locomotive Lokomotive
lok-mōw'sn, -mōw'tiv

lodge Wohnung geben; -r Mieter,
Zimmerherr; lodgings möblierte
Mietwohnung *lodʒ*

loft (Haus-)Boden; -y hoch, er-
log Klotz, Kloben *log* [haben *loft*]

logic Logik; -al logisch *lō-dz'ik*

lone einsam; -ly *adj.* einsam *loun*

long lang; -shanks Langbein *lonʒ*,
-*šank's*

long for sich sehnen nach *lonʒ*

Longfellow (amerik. Dichter, † 1882)
lō'nfelo

Longleat *lō'ŋlit*

longitude geogr. Länge *lō'ndz'itud*

look Blick; ~ blicken, aussehen;
~ at blicken nach; ~ for suchen;
~ er-on Zuschauer; ~ing-glass
Spiegel *luk*

loom Webstuhl *lūm*

loose lose *lus*

lord (adliger) Herr (S. 277) *lōrd*
Lorrain Lothringen; -er Lothringer;
~ese lothringisch *lōr'm*

lose verlieren; -r Verlierer; loss
Verlust; at a ~ in Verlegenheit *lūz*,
lūzər, los [Lotterie *lot, lot'r'i*]

lot Los, Schicksal, Menge; lottery)

loud laut *lāud*

lough See (in Irland) *lok*

louse Laus *lāus*

love Liebe; lieben; -er Liebhaber;
~ly lieblich; ~liness Liebschaft;
~song Liebeslied *lov(l'ins)*

low niedrig, leise; -er niederlassen;
~ness Niedrigkeit *lōu lōu'ər*

lower finster blicken *lāu'ər*

Lowell *lōu'əl*

loyal treu ergeben; -ty Untertanen-
treue *lō'əl*

lucidity Klarheit *lū-si'di'ti*

lucifer Licht (in sich) tragend; ~match
Zündhölzchen *lū-si'fər(mætʃ)*

luck Glück, Zufall; bad ~ Unglück;
~y glücklich *luk*

Lucknow (Borberindien) *lō'kno*

Ludgate Hill (Stadtviertel bei St.
Pauls in London) *logt hi'l*

The English Scholar (Vocabulary).

luggage Gepäck *logi'dʒ*

Luke Lukas *luk*

luminous leuchtend *lū'minəs*

lunch, -eon (Gabel-)Frühstück

lung Lunge *lonʒ* [*loniʃ(n)*]

Lupercal Fest des Pan *lū'pər-kəl*

Lusitania (Portugal) *lusi'te'nɪə*

lusty in üppiger Fülle strotzend *lust*

luxury Luxus; luxuriant üppig
lū'kʃəri, logzū'riənt

lyceum Gymnasium *līs'i'tiəm*

Lycurgus (9. Jhd. vor Chr.) *lū'kōr'gəs*

Lyly (S. 157) *li'li*

Lynn *lin*

Lynette (S. 280) *lin'et*

lyre Lyra; lyric lyrisch(es Gedicht);

lyrical lyrisch; lyrist Lyriker
lī'rər, lī'r'ik, lī'rist

Macaulay († 1859) *məkō'l*

Macbeth 10, s

M'Carthy *Məkār'pi*

Macchiavelli (Florenz 1469—1527)
məkə've'li

Macedonian *mæs'dōw'nɪən*

machine Maschine; -ry Triebwerk
məʃin

Mackay (englischer Schriftsteller, geb.
1814) *məkē*

Mackenzie *mək'enzi*

mackintosh wasserdichter Mantel
mək'ɪntʃ

Macleod *mək'lōd*

Macpherson *mək'fər'sn*

macron Längezeichen *mē'krən*

Madam gnädige Frau, gnädiges
Fräulein *mæ'dəm*

mad toll; ~den rasend machen *mæ'dn*

Madeira Madeira *mæ'di'rɪ*

Madras (Borberindien) *mædræs*

magazine Zeitschrift *mægə'zɪn*

Magellan Magelhaens (portugiesischer
Seefahrer, † 1521) *mædʒələn*

magician Magier *mædʒi'sn*

magistrate Beamter *mæ'dʒɪstrɪt*

magnet Magnet *mæg'nət*

magnificent prächtig; magnify ver-
größern; magnitude Größe, Aus-
dehnung *mæg'nɪ'fɪsənt, mæg'nɪ'fə*,
mæg'nɪ'tud

Mahometan *mə'hə'metən* *mə'id* }
 maid Mädchen; ~servant Magd }
 Maidenhead (Berks) *mæ'dnhed*
 mail Briefbeutel, ~post; ~coach Brief-
 post-Kutsche *mēit*
 main Ozean; hauptsächlich; ~land
 Festland *mēin*
 maintain behaupten; maintenance
 Unterhaltung, Beföstigung *məntēn*,
mēi'ntənəns
 maize Mais *mə'iz*
 majestic majestätisch; majesty Ma-
 jestät *mæ'dʒə'stik*, *mæ'dʒə'sti*
 major-domo Haushofmeister *mə'dʒər*
dou'mo
 majority Mehrheit *mæ'dʒərɪti*
 to make up fertig machen; ~ up
 one's mind sich fest entschließen,
 sich fest vornehmen
 malady Krankheit *mæ'lədi*
 male männlich *mēit*
 malicious böswillig *məli'sjəs*
 mallet Schlägel *mæ'lt*
 Malta Malta; Maltese aus M. *mɔltə*
 Malvern (S.W. von Worcester) }
 mamma Mama *məmə* [*mɔ'vərn*]
 mammalia Säugetiere *mə'mē'liə*
 man bemannen; man-of-war Kriegs-
 schiff *mæn*, *mənə'vər*
 manage verwalten, betreiben, es
 fertig bringen; ~ able (leicht) zu
 handhaben, lenksam; ~r Geschäfts-
 führer *mæ'nɪdʒ*, ~abt, ~rr
 Manchester (Lancashire); ~ianism
 Manchesterium *mæ'nʃstər*, *mæn*-
 Manhattan *mən'hæt'n* [*ʃə'stɪ'rɪəm*]
 manhood Mannhaftigkeit *mæ'nhuəd*
 manifest offenbar; offenbaren, be-
 funden, an den Tag legen; ~ation
 Rundgebung *mənɪfə'steɪʃn*, *mæ'nɪfəst*
 manifold mannigfalt *mə'nɪfəʊld*
 Manitoba (Kanada) *mənɪtə'bə*
 mankind Menschheit (S. 279) *mæn*
 manly männlich *mænli* [*kænd*]
 manner Art und Weise, Sitte *mænər*
 mannerism Künstelei, Manieriertheit
mæ'nərɪzm
 mansion Herrenſitz; M-House
 (Wohnung des Lord Mayor
 in London) *mænʃn həʊs*

mantle Mantel; Glühstrumpf; ~piece
 Raminſims *mæ'nlt*
 manufacture Handanfertigung; an-
 fertigen, fabrizieren; ~r Fabrikant
mænʃʊfæk'sər, ~fæk'sər
 manuscript Handschrift *mæ'nʃskript*
 many viele; a good ~ ziemlich viele
meni [ständer *mæp'stənd*]
 map Landkarte; ~stand Karten-
 mar verderben, verpfuschen *mār*
 marble Marmor *mɑ:blt*
 march Marsch; marschieren *mɑ:ts*
 Margate (Kent) *mɑ:gət*
 margin Rand *mɑ:rdʒɪn*
 mariner Seemann; ~s compass See-
 kompaß *mæ'rɪnər*
 maritime zur See gehörig *mæ'rɪtɪm*
 mark Merkmal, Ziel Marke, Zensur,
 Note; anmerken, bezeichnen, aus-
 zeichnen *mɑ:k*
 Mark Marcus *mɑ:k*
 Marlowe *mɑ:ləʊ*
 market Markt *mɑ:kɪt*
 Marlborough (Name) *mɑ:ltbərə*
 Marmon (Name) *mɑ:mən*
 marquis Markgraf *mɑ:kwi:s*
 marriage Hochzeit, Heirat; marry
 heiraten *mæ'rɪdʒ*, *mæri*
 marshal Marschall; ordnen *mɑ:ʃəl*
 martial kriegerisch *mɑ:ʃəl*
 marvellous wunderbar *mɑ:vələs*
 masculine (gramm.) männlich
 mask Maske; ~er maschierte Person
mɑ:sk [*mēisn*]
 mason Maurer; ~ry Mauerwerk
 masquerade Mascherade *mæskrə'id*
 mass Messe *mæs* [*mæs*, *mæ'sɪv*]
 mass Masse, Menge; ~ive gediegen
 Massachusetts (Staat, U. S. Am.)
mæ'sətʃu:səts
 massacre niedermegeln *mæ'skər*
 mast Mast *mɑ:st*
 master Herr, Meister, Lehrer (S. 277);
 ~ry Meisterschaft; ~ly meisterhaft
 mat Matte *mæt* *mæstər*
 match Bündholz; Wettspiel; das
 einem andern Gleichkommende, die
 passende Partie; zusammenpassen,
 paaren; ~less unvergleichlich *mætʃ*
 mate Gefährte; Gehilfe, Maat *mēit*

material Grundstoff; wirtschaftlich *mat'ri-ri-əl*
 mathematical mathematisch; mathematician Mathematiker; mathematics Mathematik *mat'h-mæt'ik-əl*, *mat'h-mæt'i-ſ'n*, *mat'h-mæt'iks*
 matter Materie, Stoff, Ursache, Sache, Angelegenheit; no matter ganz gleich *mæt'ər*
 Matthew Matthäus *mæt'hjū*
 Mauretania *mō'rēt'i-ni-ä*
 maxim Grundsatz *mæks'im*
 Maximilian Maximilian *mæks'i-mi-li-ən*
 mayflower Weißdorn *mēi-flā-wər*
 mayor Bürgermeister *mē-ər*
 meadow Wiese *mē-dō*
 meagre mager *mīg-ər*
 meal Mahlzeit *mīl*
 mean gering, niedrig, gemein *mīn*
 mean bedeuten, meinen; beabsichtigen; -ing Bedeutung *mīn*, *mī-n'ing*
 means Mittel; by all - jedenfalls; by no - keineswegs; in the meantime inzwischen; meanwhile mittlerweile *mīnz*, *mīn'hvāit*
 measure Maß, Maßregel; messen *mē-ʒər*
 meat Fleisch (= Speise) *mīt*
 mechanic Handwerker; -al mechanisch; -s Mechanik *mæ-kæ-n'ik(ət)*
 medal Medaille *medl*
 Medford *mē-df'rd*
 mediæval mittelalterlich *mē-d'i-vəl*
 medicine Arznei, Heilkunde; medicinal heilkräftig, Arznei- *mēd'i-s'n*, *mēd'i-s'n-əl*
 meditate überlegen; meditation Betrachtung; meditative betrachtend *mē-dit'et*, *mē-dit'ē-ſ'n*, *mē-dit'iv*
 mediterranean mittelländisch *mē-dit'rē-ni-ən*
 medium Mittel; mittler *mēd'i-əm*
 Medway (Nebenfl. d. Themse) *mēd-ū-ēi*
 meet (zusammen)treffen, -treten; with begegnen; -inghouse Versammlungs-, Bethaus *mīt*
 meet angemessen *mīt* [*mē-t'ər-n*]
 Melbourne (Victoria, Australien)
 melody Melodie *mē-lō-dī*
 melt schmelzen *melt*

member Mitglied *memb-ər*
 memoir Denkschrift Lebensgeschichte plur. Denkwürdigkeiten *mē-mw-ər*
 memorable denkwürdig; memorial Gedenkzeichen; Denkmal; memory Gedächtnis, Andenken *mē-mō-rəbl*, *mē-mō-ri-əl*, *mē-mō-ri*
 mend ausbessern, flicken *mend*
 mental geistig, Geistes- *ment-əl*
 mention erwähnen *mēn-ſ'n*
 mercantile kaufmännisch *mər-kənt'əl*
 mercer Schnittwarenhändler *mər-s-ər*
 merchandise Kaufmannsgut; merchant Großkaufmann; merchantman Rauffahrtseischiß *mər-t'is-ndā-ʒ*, *mər-t'is-nt*
 Mercia (altengl. Königreich) *mər-ſi-ä*
 mercury Quecksilber *mər-kjū-ri*
 mercy Barmherzigkeit *mər-si*
 mere bloß, nur *mər* [*məri-di-ən*]
 meridian Mittags-, Längengreis
 merit (intellektuelles) Verdienst *mē-rit*
 mermaid Sirene, Wassernixe *mər-.*
 merry fröhlich *meri* [*mēd*]
 message Botschaft *mes-i-ʒ*
 Messiah Mesias *məsai-i-əs*
 Messrs (= messieurs) S. 119
mē-s'ər-ʒ, *mēs-si-ər-ʒ*
 metaphorical bildlich *metə-fō-ri-kəl*
 metal Metall *metl*
 metaphysics *metə-fiz'iks*
 mete zumessen, zuteil werden lassen *mīt*
 method (Lehr-)Verfahren *mē-thəd*
 metre Meter, Metrum; metrical metrisch *mīt-ər*, *mē-trik-əl*
 metropolitan hauptstädtisch *metrə-.*
 mice Mäuse *mā-iz* [*pə-litən*]
 Michael Michael *māi-kəl*
 Michaelmas Michaelisfest *mī-kəl-məs*
 Michigan (Staat, U. S. A.) *mī-ſi-gən*
 'mid = amid
 midday Mittag; midnight Mitternacht *mī-ddēi*, *midnāit*
 middle Mitte mittel; -ages Mittelalter; midst Mitte; midsummer Hochsommer *midl*, *mid*
 Midlothian = Edinburghshire *mid-lō-θi-ən*
 might Macht; -y mächtig *māit*
 migration Wanderung *māi-grē-ſ'n*

mild mild; -ness Milde *mā'ld*
 mile Meile *mā'lt*
 Milford (in Wales) *mī'l'fɔrd*
 military militärisch *mī'l'itəri*
 militia Landwehr *mī'l'i:šə*
 milk Milch; melken *mīlk*
 mill Mühle, Fabrik; -er Müller *mīl*
 Milton *mīltən*
 mind Geist, Sinn; to have a ~
 Lust haben; to make up one's ~
 sich entschließen; to ~ aufpassen
 auf, beachten; sich etwas machen
 aus, Bedenken tragen *mā'nd*
 mine Bergwerk; -r Bergmann,
 Grubenarbeiter *mā'n*
 mineral Mineral *mī'n'rəl*
 mingle vermischen *mīnglt*
 mining Bergbau *mā'niŋ*
 minister Diener Gottes, Pastor,
 Minister *mī'n'istər*
 minor kleiner, geringer; -ity Minder-
 heit *mā'nər, mā'nɔ'riti*
 minstrel Spielmann, Sänger *mīn'strəl*
 mint Münze, Münzstätte *mīnt*
 minus minus *mā'n'əs*
 minute Minute; minute bis ins
 kleinste genau, umständlich *mīn'it;*
mī'n'w'lt
 miracle Wunder *mī'r'əkl*
 mirror Spiegel *mī'rər*
 misbehaviour Ungezogenheit *mīsbi-*
hə'viər
 miscellaneous vermischt *mīs'əl'i'n'əs*
 misconception falsche Vorstellung,
 Irrtum *mīs'kən'sep'ʃən*
 misconduct unehrenhaftes Benehmen;
 sich schlecht führen *mīs'kə'ndəkt,*
tə mīs'kə'ndə'kt
 misfortune Unglück *mīs'fɔrt'sən*
 miser Geizhals; -ly geizig *mā'izər*
 miserable elend; misery Elend
mī'zərəbl, mī'zəri
 misprint Druckfehler *mīs'prīnt*
 mispronounce falsch aussprechen
mīs'prə'nəʊns
 miss vermissen, verfehlen *mīs*
 Miss Fräulein
 missile Wurfgeschoss *mī'sīl*
 missionary Missionar *mī'sjənəri*
 Missouri *mīs'ŏri*

mist Nebel *mīst*
 mistake Fehler, verwechseln; to be
 ~n sich irren *mīstə'k*
 mistletoe Mistel *mī'ztləʊ*
 mistress Herrin *mīstrəs*
 Mitchell (engl. Reisender) *mītʃəl*
 mix mischen; ~ up verwechseln; ~ture
 Mischung *mīksə'p, mī'kʃər*
 moan stöhnen *məʊn*
 moat breiter Wassergraben um ein
 befestigtes Schloß *məʊt*
 modal *məʊ'dəl*
 mode Art, Weise *məʊd*
 model Vorbild, Muster, Modell;
 nachbilden, formen *mədəl*
 modern neuzeitig; ~ize zeitgemäß
 umarbeiten *mədər'n [mɔ'də'fai]*
 modify abändern, näher bestimmen
 mogul Mogul *mə'gʊl, mə'gʊt*
 Mohican Mohikaner *mouh'i:kən*
 moist feucht; to ~en anfeuchten;
 ~ener Maschinenanfeuchter; ~ure
 Feuchtigkeit *mɔɪst, mɔɪ'sn, mɔɪ'snər,*
mɔɪst'sər
 moment Augenblick; ~ous bedeu-
 tungsvoll *məʊ'mənt, mə'məntəs*
 monarch Monarch; ~y Monarchie
mɔ'nərk, mɔ'nərki
 monastery Kloster, monastic mön-
 chisch *mɔ'nə'stəri, mɔ'nə'stɪk*
 monetary Münze; ~unit Münzeinheit
mɔ'nə'təri (jʌnət) [mɔ'n]
 money Geld; ~lender Geldverleiher
 monitor Ermahner
 monk Mönch; ~ish mönchisch *mɔŋk*
 monkey Affe *mɔŋkə*
 monologue Selbstgespräch *mɔ'nɔləg*
 monopolize allein den Handel haben;
 monopoly Alleinhandel *mɔ'nɔ-*
pəlaɪz, mɔ'nɔ'pəli
 monosyllabic *mɔ'nɔ'sɪlə'bɪk*
 monotheistic *mɔ'nɔ'p'i:stɪk*
 monotony Eintönigkeit *mɔ'nɔ'təni*
 Monroe 1758—1831 *mən'rəʊ*
 monster Ungeheuer *mɔnstər*
 Montana (U. S. A.) *mɔntə'nə*
 month Monat *mʌnθ*
 Montreal (Kanada) *mɔntri'ɔ:l*
 monument Denkmal; ~al denkmal-
 artig, Gedenk- *mɔ'numənt, ~mɛn'təl*

mood (*gram.*) Modus *mūd*
 mood Gemütsverfassung *mūd*
 moon Mond *mān*
 moor Moor *mūr*
 moor vertäuen, festmachen; -ings
 Vertäuing, Hafenanfer *mūr,*
māriŋz
 Moore (irischer Dichter, † 1852) *mūr*
 Moors (*plur.*) die Mauren *mūrz*
 moral die Sittlichkeit fördernd, sittlich=
 gut; morals Sitten *mōrət*
 moreover außerdem *mōrōvər*
 Moreton Bay (Australien) *mōrtənber*
 morn, morning Morgen *mōrnŋ*
 Morris *mōris*
 mortal sterblich; -ity Sterblichkeit
mōrtət, mōrtē'li:t
 Mortimer *mōrtimər*
 Mortlake *mōrtleik*
 Moselle Mosel *mōzəl*
 Moses *mōuziz*
 mosquito Moskito *mōskī'to*
 moss Moos *mōs*
 mother Mutter *mō'tər*
 motion Bewegung; motive bewegend,
 Trieb; motor Beweger, bewegende
 Kraft, Kraftmaschine; to motor
 durch einen Motor antreiben
mōušn, mōutiv, mōutər
 Motley *mō'tl*
 mould Form, Gestell *mōuld*
 moulder modern *mōuldər*
 mound Damm, Erdwall *māund*
 mount Berg; (hin)aufsteigen, be=
 steigen, aufstellen, montieren; to be
 -ed beritten sein *māunt*
 mountain Berg; -pipe Dudelsack;
 -eer Bergbewohner, Hochländer;
 -ous gebirgig *māuntin, māuntinər,*
māuntinəs
 mourn trauern; -er Leidtragender;
 -ful trauervoll; -ing Trauer
 mouse Maus *māus* [*mōrnfāt*]
 moustache Schnurrbart *mustāš*
 mouth Mund, Mündung *māuþ*
 movable beweglich; move bewegen,
 verziehen, umziehen; move on
 (sich) vorwärts bewegen; -up
 heraufziehen; movement Bewegung
māvbl, māv, māvmənt

Mr. sprich *mistər* (S. 277) Herr
 MSS = Manuscripts
 mud Schlamm, Schmutz; -dy
 schmutzig *mud* [*tuch mofl*]
 muffle umwickeln; -r Halsbinde,
 mule Maultier *mūt*
 multiplication Vervielfältigung; to
 multiply vervielfältigen *mōlti-*
plikei'sn, mōltplāi [*mōnt's*]
 munch gierig, schmaugend fauen
 municipal städtisch; -clerk Magi=
 stratssekretär; municipality Stadt=
 behörde *muni'sipəl, mūnisipē'li:t*
 Murray (S. 6 Fußn., geb. 1837)
mō'r
 (Mount) Murchison (Berg in British
 Columbia, 4810 m hoch) *mōr'ti'sn*
 murder ermorden *mōrdər*
 Muriel (Mädchenname) *mūriəl*
 murmur murren *mōrmər*
 muscle Muskel *mōst*
 muse Muse; -um Museum *mūz,*
mūzi'əm
 music Musik, -al musikalisch; -ian
 Musiker *mūz'ik, mūzi'sn*
 musket Flinte; -eer Musketier *mōskit*
 mussulman Muselman *mōst'mæn*
 mustard Mostich *mōstərd*
 muster Ansammeln, Haufe, Trupp;
 (sich) zur Musterung sammeln,
 aufbringen *mōstər*
 mute stumm *mūt*
 mutinous meuterisch; mutiny
 Meuterei *mūtinos, mūtini*
 mutton Hammelfleisch *mōtn*
 mutual (sich) gegenseitig (suchend)
mūtšüət
 myrtle Myrte *mōrtl*
 mystery Geheimnis; Mysterium, geist=
 liches Schauspiel; mysterious ge=
 heimnisvoll *mī'stəri, mīstē'riəs*
 mystic mystisch, dunkel *mī'stik*
 myth Mythe *mīþ*

nail Nagel *nēil*
 naked nackt *nēkid*
 name Name, nennen; -sake Namens=
 etter; -ly nämlich *nēm*
 Napier (Hafen, Neu-Seeland) *nē'piər*
 napkin Serviette, Tuch *næp'kin*

narration Erzählung; narrative erzählend *nærē'sn*, *næ'rativ*
 narrow eng, knapp *næ'ro*
 nasty garstig, ekelhaft *næsti*
 Natal *note'et*
 Nathanael *nə'pæ'næl*
 nation Volk; national national; -ity Nationalität *nē'sn*, *næ'snæt*, *næ'snæ'lit*
 native eingeboren, einheimisch *nētiv*
 natural natürlich; nature Natur *næ'tʃʊrəl*, *nēitʃər*
 naught Null; -y unartig *nōt*
 nautical nautisch; -mile Seemeile *nō'tikəl*
 naval See-, Schiff-, Marine-; navigable schiffbar, befahrbar, lenkbar; navigation Schifffahrt; navigator Schiffer; navy Flotte *nēvəl*, *næ'vigəbl*, *nævigē'sn*, *næ'vigətər*, *nēvi*
 near nahe; -ly beinahe; -ness Nähe *nīər*(*nəs*)
 neat rein, reinlich *nīt*
 necessary nötig; necessitate notwendig machen; necessity Notwendigkeit, Bedürfnis *nə'ssəri*, *nəsə'sitit*, *nəsə'siti*
 neck Nacken, Hals; -lace Halskette *nek*, *nekləs*
 necromantic totenbeschwörend, zauberisch *nekrəmæ'ntik*
 need Bedürfnis, Not; brauchen, bedürfen *nīd*
 needle (Näh-)Nadel *nīdl*
 needy bedürftig *nīdi*
 negative negativ; negation Verneinung *ne'gativ*, *nə'gē'sn*
 neglect vernachlässigen, negligence Nachlässigkeit *nə'glekt*, *ne'glidʒəns*
 negro Neger *nīgro*
 neighbour Nachbar; -hood Nachbarschaft; -ing benachbart *nēibərɪŋ*
 neither *pron.* keiner von beiden *nāidər*
 Nelson 1758—1805 *netsn*
 nephew Neffe *nə'vu*
 nerve Nerv, Seelenruhe *nərv*
 net Netz; network Geflecht, Netzwerk *net*
 nether world Unterwelt *nē'dər*
 neuter sächlich *njūtər*

never niemals; -theless nichtsdestoweniger *ne'vər*(*dəles*)
 new neu; -comer Ankömmling *nū*(*'kəmər*) [1862] *nū'bəutl*
 Newbolt (Jurist und Dichter, geb.)
 Newcastle (Northumbria) *nūkə'st*
 Newfoundland 10, 2
 Newhaven *nūhə'vem*
 news Nachricht; -paper Zeitung *nūz*(*pēipər*)
 nice nett, fein, niedlich *nāis*
 niche Wandvertiefung *nīts*
 Nicholas Nikolaus *nī'kələs*
 nickel Nickel *nīkt*
 nickname mit einem Spottnamen belegen, schimpfen *nī'knēm*
 niece Nichte *nīs*
 nigh beinahe *nāi*
 night Nacht *nāit* [*nəbi'liiti*, *nōubt*]
 nobility Adel; noble edel, adelig
 noise Lärm; noisy geräuschvoll *nōiz*
 nominal nur dem Namen nach, angeblich *nə'minəl*
 nominate ernennen *nə'minəit*
 non Nicht- *nən*
 non-descript unbestimmbar *nə'n-diskript*
 none niemand *nən*
 non-finite infinit *nə'nfināit*
 nook Winkel *nūk*
 noon Mittag *nūn*
 nor auch nicht, noch *nər*
 Norfolk (Grafschaft) *nər'fək*
 normal *nōrməl*
 Norman Normanne; normännisch; -dy die Normandie *nōrmən*
 north Norden; -erly, -ern nördlich; Northman Normanne *nōr'p*, *nōr'dərli*, *nōr'dərn*, *nōr'p'mən*
 Northbrook *nōr'pbrūk*
 Northumbria (altengl. Königreich) *nōr'p'mbriā*
 northwards nordwärts *nōr'pūədz*
 Norway Norwegen *nōr'wēi*
 Norwood (südl. Vorstadt Londons)
 nose Nase *nōuz* [*nōr'gud*]
 note Weise, Gesang, Notiz, Zeichen, Merkzeichen, Bemerkung, Banknote; -book Merkbuch; -paper Briefpapier; -worthy bemerkens-

wert; to note bemerken; noted
for berühmt wegen *nōut*, *nōutid*
nothing nichts *nopīn*
notice Bekanntmachung; beachten,
bemerken *nōutis* [*nōušn*]
notion Begriff, Vorstellung, Gedanke
Nottingham (Nottinghamshire) *nō-
tīŋəm* [*notūidstæ'ndīŋ*]
notwithstanding ungeachtet, trotz
nought = naught Null *nōt*
noun Nomen, Substantiv, Haupt-
wort *nāun*
Nova Scotia Neu-Schottland (Pro-
vinz von Kanada) *nōwə skōw'siā*
novel neu, ungewöhnlich; Roman,
-ist Romanschriftsteller *nōvl(ist)*
now jetzt; -adays heutzutage *nāw'ādēiz*
nowhere nirgends *nōwēər*
nucleus Kern *nū'klōs*
nuisance Unzuträglichkeit, Beschä-
digung, Verunreinigung *nū'səns*
number Nummer, Zahl, Vers; zählen;
numeral Zahlwort; numerous
zahlreich *nūmbər*, *nūmərət*, *nūmərəs*
nun Nonne *nɒn*
nurse Amme; -ry Zucht, Kinder-
stube, Kunstgärtnerei *nārs*

oak Eiche; -en eichen *ōuk(m)*
oar Ruder *ōr*
oath Eid; to take an - einen Eid
ablegen *ōəp*
oats plur. Hafer *ōuts* § 33
Oban (Schottland) *ōubən*
obedience Gehorsam; obedient ge-
horsam; to obey gehorchen *ōbi-
diəns*, *ōbē*
object Gegenstand, Ziel, Objekt; Ein-
spruch erheben; -ion Einspruch,
Einmendung; -ive sachlich *ōbdžekt*,
tī ōbdžekt, *ōbdžektšn*, *ōbdžektiv*
oblige verpflichten *ōblaidž*
oblique schief, schräge *ōbli:k*
obscure dunkel *ōbskūr*
observe beobachten; -r Beobachter;
observation Beobachtung; obser-
vatory Sternwarte *ōbzərv*, *ōbzər-
vēr'sn*, *ōbzər'vətəri*
obsolete veraltet *ōbsələt*
obtain erlangen *ōbtēin*

obverse Bildseite *ōbvərs*
occasion Veranlassung (S. 277);
-al gelegentlich *ōkēzən*
occupation Beschäftigung; occupy
(den Platz) einnehmen (von), be-
schäftigen *ōkupēr'sn*, *ō'kupə*
occur sich ereignen, begegnen; -rence
Ereignis *ōkər*
ocean Weltmeer; Oceana *ōušn*, *ōsi'nā*
odd ungerade *əd*
ode Ode *ōud*
odour Wohlgeruch, Duft *ōudər*
Odyssey Odyssee *ōdisēi*
off abseits von, in der Nähe von *əf*
offence Beleidigung, Ärgernis;
offend beleidigen; offensive be-
leidigend *əfens*, *əfend*, *əfə'nsiv*
offer Angebot; dar-, anbieten *əfər*
office Amt, Geschäftsstelle, Bureau;
Dienstleistung; -r Beamter, Offi-
zier; official amtlich, Beamter,
Beamtin *ə'fis*, *ə'fisər*, *ə'fi'st*
offspring Nachkommenschaft *əfsprīŋ*
often oft *əfn*
oil Öl, ölen *ōil*
old alt; of - von altersher; -fashio-
ned altmodisch *ōuld*
olive Ölbaum *ə'liv*
omission Auslassung; to omit = to
leave out auslassen *əmi'sn*, *əmit*
omnibus Omnibus *ə'mnibəs*
omnipotence Allmacht *əmnī'pətns*
on prep. an, auf; adv. vorwärts,
weiter
once einstmals; at - sofort *əvns*
at one einig
one-eyed einäugig *əv'n əid*
only adj. alleinig; adv. nur, erst *əunli*
Lake Ontario Ontario-See *əntəriə*
onto § 106 Bem. *əntə*
onward(s) vorwärts, weiter *ə'nwəd(z)*
open offen, öffnen, eröffnen *əupn*
opera Oper *ə'pərə*
operation Wirksamkeit; Unter-
nehmung, Berrichtung *əpərə'sn*
opinion Meinung *əpi'njən*
opium Opium, Mohnsaft *əupijəm*
opportunity Gelegenheit *əpətū'niti*
oppose entgegenreten, -sehen; the
-d die Gegner; opposite gegen-

überliegend; opposition Wider-
stand *opōuz, op'azit, op'zi'sn*
oppress bedrängen *op're's*
opprobrious schimpflich *op'rōu'brivs*
optimistic, optimism *optimi'stik,*
optimizm
opulence Fülle *op'ulens*
or oder *ōr*
oracle Weissagung, göttliche Offen-
oral mündlich *ō'rəl* [barung *ō'rəkəl*]
Orange Oranien *ō'rəndž*
orange Apfelsine, orangefarben; ~ry
ō'rəndž, ō'ræ'ndžəri
oration Rede; orator Redner *ō'rē'i'sn,*
ō'rətər
orchard Obstgarten *ōrč'sərd*
order Orden; Ordnung, Befehl; in
~ to um zu; ordnen, einrichten,
befehlen, bestellen *ōrdər*
ordinal number Ordnungszahl *ōrdinəl*
ordinary gewöhnlich *ōrdinəri*
Oreb (Soreb, Arabien) *ōrəb*
organ Organ, Orgel; ~ism; ~ize
ordnungsmäßig einrichten *ōrgən,*
ōrgənizm, ōrgənəiz
Oriel *ō'riəl*
Orient, oriental *ō'riənt, ōrientəl*
origin Ursprung, Herkunft; ~al ur-
sprünglich, eigenartig; ~ality Ur-
sprünglichkeit; ~ate hervorrufen,
schaffen; entspringen, entstehen
ō'ridžin, ōri'džinəl, ~džinæ'viti,
ōri'džinət
Orkney-Islands Orkney-Inseln *ōrkni*
Orleans Orleans in Frankreich
= *ōrlənz*; New- in Amerika
= *ōrlinz*
ornament, ~ation Verzierung,
Schmuck; to ornament schmücken;
~al zum Schmuck dienend *ōrnamənt,*
ōrnaməntəl
orphan Waise *ōr'fən*
Orthography, orthographical *ōr'fō-*
grəfi, ōr'fōgræ'fikəl
Osborne (Insel Wight) *ōzbərn*
Othello *ōp'e'lo*
otherwise anders, sonst *ō'dər'wāiz*
ottave Ottava *ōtāvā*
Ottoman *ō'tmæn*
ounce Unze (31,103 Gramm) *āuns*

Ouse (Fluß) *āz*
outcome Ergebnis *āutkəm*
outdo übertreffen *āutdər*
outdoor draußen *āutdər*
outer § 55 *āutər*
outing Ausflug *āutin*
outlaw Geächteter *āutlō*
outlive überleben *āutli'v*
outlook Gesichtswerte, Blick in die
Ferne *āutluk*
outlying nach außen hin liegend
āutli'v
Outram (engl. Feldherr † 1863)
ā'trəm [*sā'id*]
outside Außenseite; außerhalb *āut-'*
outworn abgenutzt *āutworn*
oval *ōu'vəl*
over über *ōuvər* [halten *ōuvər'ō'*]
overawe durch Furcht nieder-
overcast bedecken *ōuvər'kə'st*
overcoat Überzieher *ōuvər'kōut*
overcome übermächtigen
overflow überfließen, -laufen; ~ing
überschwenglich *ōuvər'flōu*
overhead droben *ōuvər'həd*
overhear belauschen *ōuvər'hēr*
overladen überladen *ōuvər'lə'dən*
overlook überblicken *ōuvər'lūk*
oversleep verschlafen *ōuvər'slīp*
overseer Aufseher, Verwalter *ōuvər'siər*
overtake einholen *ōuvər'tē'k*
overthrow umstürzen *ōuvər'prōu*
overweening dünnelhaft, eingebildet
ōuvər'wī'niŋ [*ōuvər'wī'k*]
overwork Überbürdung; überbürden
owe schuldig sein, verdanken; owing
to dank *ōu, ōu'ing*
owl Eule *āut*
own eigen; ~er Eigentümer *ōun*
ox Ochsen *oks, ōxen* (plur.)
Oxford (Oxfordshire) *oks'fərd*
oyster Auster *ōistər*

pace Schritt *pēs*
pacific friedfertig, ruhig; pacify
beruhigen *pæsi'fik, pæ'sifai*
pack ein-, zusammenpacken, ein-
pferchen; ~age Gepäck *pæk, pæ'kidž*
packet Paket *pækət*
pad Polsterjack, -fissen *pæd*

Paddington (Stadtteil Londons)
 pagan heidnisch *pē'gən* [*pæ'dɪŋtən*]
 page Seite *pē'dʒ* [*pæ'dʒɪntri*]
 pageant Aufputz; -ry Gepränge
 padishah Oberherrscher (a title of
 the Sultan of Turkey, and of
 the shah of Persia) *pā'di'shā*
 pain Schmerz, Dual, Mühe; -ful
 schmerzlich *pē'in*, *pē'ɪnful*
 paint malen; -er Maler; -ing
 Malerei, Gemälde *pē'ɪnt*
 pair Paar *pēər*
 palace Palaß; palatial palaßartig;
pæl's, *pæl'i'shəl*
 palate Gaumen *pæ'lit*
 pale bleich *pē'lt*
 pall-mall Mailspiel-Bahn *pælme'lt*
 palm Palme; Handfläche; -y palmen-
 Palos (span. Hafen) *pāl's* [reich *pām*]
 paltry lumpig, kläglich *pɔ'ttri*
 Pamela *pæm'ɪlə*
 pamphlet Flugſchrift; -eer Pamphle-
 tiſt *pæ'mflət*, *-tɪər* [*pæ'ŋkrəs*]
 Pancrace Heiliger Pankratius
 pane (Glas-)Scheibe *pē'in*
 paper Papier, Zeitung *pē'pər*
 paradise Paradies *pæ'rɪ'dā'iz*
 paradigm (S. 276) *pæ'rɪ'dɪm*
 paragraph Abſchnitt; Abſatz; neue
 Zeile *pæ'rɪgrəf*
 parallel parallel; -ogram Parallelo-
 gramm *pæ'rɪlə't*, *pæ'rɪlə'logrəm*
 parapet Brüstung, aufgemauerter
 Seitenſteig, Bürgerſteig *pæ'rəpət*
 paraphrase umſchreiben *pæ'rəfrē'iz*
 parcel Paket *pərsət*
 parchment Pergament *pərtʃmənt*
 pardon Verzeihung, verzeihen *pərdn*
 parents Eltern; parentage Her-
 kunft *pē'rɪnts*, *pə'rentidʒ*
 parentheses plur. runde Klammern
 (); sing. parenthesis; paren-
 thetical eingefügt *pə'renθet'ɪkəl*,
pə'renθəs'ɪs [*pə'rɪ'θɪn*]
 Paris Paris; -ian pariſer *pæ'r'is*,
 parish Pfarre; Kirchſpiel *pæ'r'ɪʃ*
 parliament Parlament; -ary durch
 das Parlament feſtgeſetzt; mit
 eigenem Parlament *pərl'mənt*,
-mə'ntri

parse die Wortklaſſen (Redeteile)
 und die grammatiſche Abhängigkeit
 der einzelnen Wörter im Satze be-
 ſtimmen *pə'rz*
 part Teil, Rolle; abreifen, ſich los-
 reißen; -ial teilweise; parteiſch;
 -iciple Partizipium -icipial; -icle
 Partikel; -icular Einzelheit; be-
 ſonder; genau, ſcharf; -ing
 Trennung; -ly teilweise; -ner
 Teilhaber, Geſchäftsgenoſſe, Ge-
 fährte, Partner beim Tanz, Tänzer;
 -nership Genoſſenſchaft; -y Ge-
 ſellſchaft, Partei *pərt*, *pərsət*,
pərtisipt, *pərtisi'pət*, *pərti'kɪlə*,
pərtɪn, *pərtnər*, *pərti*
 partridge Rebhuhn *pə'rtrɪdʒ*
 pass vorbeiziehen, -fahren, -gehen,
 hindurchgehen, dahingehen; herüber-
 reichen; hingleiten laſſen über;
 - away verſcheiden, ſterben; -an
 act ein Geſetz durchbringen; -over
 übergehen; -age Durchgang, Gang,
 Stelle; -enger Paſſagier, Reiſen-
 der, Paſſant; passive voice
 leidende Zuſtandsform; past ver-
 gangen, vorbeigegangen, vorüber
 an; nach; Vergangenheit *pās*,
pæ'sɪdʒ, *pæ'sɪndʒər*, *pæ'sɪv vɔ'ɪs*,
pāst
 passion Leidenschaft; passionate
 leidenschaftlich *pæ'sən(ət)*
 pasture Weide *pā'stʃər*
 pat gelinde ſchlagen, ſtreicheln *pæt*
 patch Flicklappen, flicken *pætʃ*
 patent Patent *pə'tənt*
 path Pfad, Fußſteig *pəθ*
 pathos leidenschaftlich feierlich-ge-
 tragene Schwunghaftigkeit *pəθ'ɪs*
 patience Geduld; patient geduldig;
 Leidender, Kranker *pə'səns*, *pə'sən*
 Patrick Patrizius *pæ'trɪk*
 patriot Patriot; -ism Vaterlands-
 liebe *pə'trɪət*
 patrol patrouillieren *pə'trəʊl*
 patron Beſchützer, Schutzherr, Gönner;
 -ize begünstigen *pə'trɒn*, *pə'trənə'ɪz*
 pattern Muſter *pæ'tərn*
 Paul *pɔʊl* [*pɔʊl*]
 pause Pauſe, Stillſtand; einhalten

pave pflastern; ~ment Straßen-
 Pavia (Italien) *pə'vi:ə* [damm *pēiv*]
 pay Bezahlung, Sold; bezahlen;
 ~ment Bezahlung; to ~ a visit
 besuchen; ~ attention aufmerken *pēi*
 pea Erbse *pē*
 peace Friede; ~ful friedlich *pīs*
 peach Pfirsich *pūs*
 peacock Pfauhahn *pē'kək*
 peal Geläut, Schlag; abgestimmt
 pear Birne *pēər* [läuten *pēt*]
 peasant Bauer *pezənt*
 pease Erbsen *pēz*
 peat Torf; ~bog Torfmoor *pēt*
 pebble Kiesel *pebt*
 peculiar besonder; ~ity Eigentüm-
 lichkeit *pəkju'liər, pəkju'li:əri*
 pecuniary pekuniär *pəkju'niəri*
 pedantic kleinlich = schulmeisterlich
pə'de'ntik
 peel Schale; Rinde; abschälen *pēt*
 peer jemand von gleichem Range oder
 Stande; der Pair, Mitglied des
 Oberhauses; ~ age Pairwürde
pēər, pē'ridž
 peg (hölzerner) Nagel, Pflock, Zwecke
 Pekin Peking *pē'kin* [peg]
 Peleus *pē'ljos*
 Pelew Islands Palauinseln *pēlw*
 pelf schmöder Mammon, eitel Geld *pētf*
 pen einpferschen *pen*
 pen Feder; ~knife Federmesser;
 ~man Schreiber; ~manship Schön-
 schreibkunst; ~name Schriftsteller-
 name *pen, pē'nāif, pē'nəm'nšip*
 pencil Schreibstift, Bleistift *pensit*
 pendant Gehänge (Zierrat) *pendənt*
 penetrate eindringen *pē'ntrēt*
 Pennine *pē'nāin*
 pent (von to pen) eingepferscht *pent*
 pentameter (Fünffuß) *pentə'mitər*
 Penzance (Cornwall) *pənzə'ns*
 people Volkstamm, Leute *pipl*
 perceive bemerken *pərsiv*
 perch Stange *pərts*
 Percy *pē'si*
 peregrine Wanderer aus fremden
 Landen; Ausländer *pə'regrin*
 perfect vollkommen; vollenden; ~ion
 Vollkommenheit *pə'fekt, tə pə'fekt*

perfidious treulos *pə'fi'dijs*
 perform verrichten, tun; ~ance Er-
 füllung, Aufführung, Vorstellung,
 ~er Darsteller, Schauspieler, Mu-
 siker *pə'fɔrm, pə'fɔrməns, pə'fɔrmər*
 perhaps vielleicht *pə'reps*
 peri (persisch) Schutzgeist, Fee *pēri*
 peril Gefahr *pə'rit*
 Perim *pə'rim*
 period Zeitabschnitt, Punkt, Periode;
 ~ical periodisch, Zeitschrift *pē'riəd,*
pē'riədikəl
 periphrastic *pə'rifrə'stik*
 perish umkommen *pə'riʃ* [mənənt]
 permanent dauernd, ständig *pə'r-*
 mission Erlaubnis; permit er-
 lauben *pə'miʃən, pə'mi't*
 perpendicular senkrecht; Lot *pə'pən-
 di'kju'lər* [ple'ksiti]
 perplexity Verwirrung, Not *pə'r-*
 persecute verfolgen; persecution
 Verfolgung *pə'sə'kju:t, pə'sə'kju:ʃən*
 perseverance Ausdauer; persevere
 ausharren *pə'sə'vi'rens, pə'sə'vi:r*
 Persia Persien; ~n persisch *pə'r'si,*
pə'r'siən
 persistent beharrlich *pə'si'stənt*
 person Person; ~al persönlich; ~age
 Persönlichkeit; ~ate darstellen; ~ifi-
 cation *pə'sn, pə'snət, -sən'ifikəiʃən*
 perspiration Schweiß; perspire
 schwitzen *pə'spi'reiʃən, pə'spə'i:r*
 persuade überreden *pə'suəd*
 pertinent treffend, passend *pə'r'tinənt*
 peruse durchsehen, -lesen *pə'rüz*
 pervade durchbringen *pə'vəd*
 pet Schoßkind, Hätschelchen; ~name
 Kosenamen *pet*
 Peter Peter, Petrus *pētr*
 petition Bitte, Bittschrift *pētiʃən*
 Petrarch *pē'trärk* [pētrəu'liəm]
 petrol, petroleum Steinöl *pētrəut,*
 petty klein, geringfügig *pēti*
 Pevensey (Sussex) *pē'vənsi*
 phantom Geist, Gespenst *fəntəm*
 phenomenon ungewöhnliche Erschei-
 nung *fə'nə'mənən* [Am. filə'delfiə]
 Philadelphia (Pennsylvania, U. S.)
 philanthropy Menschenliebe *filə'n-
 prəpi*

philologist Philologe; philology Sprachwissenschaft *filo'laʒi*
 philosopher Weisheitsfreund; ~s stone Stein der Weisen; philosophy Weltweisheit, Streben nach Erkenntnis des Zusammenhangs der Dinge in der Welt; philosophical *filo'sofɪ*; *filoso'fɪkəl*
 Phoenician phönizisch *fini'sn*
 phonetic Laut= *fone'tik*
 phonograph Lautschreiber zum Festhalten und zur Wiedergabe von Lauten und Tönen *fon'o'grəf*
 photo, photograph Photographie; to photograph photographieren; photographer Photograph *fōto*, *fōto'grəf*, *fōto'grəfər*
 phrase Redensart, Ausdrucksweise, Satzwendung; ~ology eigentümliche Ausdrucksweise, Redensarten *frēz*, *frēzi'o'laʒi*
 physical physikalisch; physician Arzt; physics Physik; physicist Physiker *fizikəl*, *fizi'sn*, *fiziks*, *fizi'sist*
 piano Klavier *pæ'no* [*pɪ'brɪk*]
 pibroch Sackpfeifen=Kriegsmarsch
 picaresque Schelmen= *pik're'sk*
 pick picken, stochern, auf sammeln; ~up aufheben, aufnehmen; ~pocket Taschendieb *pik*
 pickaxe Spitzhacke *pɪ'kæks*
 pickle einjalen, -pöfeln *pɪkəl*
 pictorial künstlerisch *pɪktɔ'riəl*
 the Picts die Picten *pɪkts*
 picture Bild; schildern; ~-postcard Ansichtspostkarte; ~sque malerisch *pɪktsə*, *pɪkts're'sk*
 pie Pastete *pai*
 piece Stück *pi:s*
 pier Anlegestelle, Landungsstamm *pɪər*
 pierce durchbohren *pɪərs*
 Piercie *pɪ'rsi*
 piety Frömmigkeit, Gottesfurcht, Ehrerbietung *pai'əti*
 pig Schwein *pɪg*
 pigeon Taube *pɪdʒən*
 pigmy Pygmäe, Zwerg *pɪg'mi*
 pile aufhäufen *paiəl*
 pilgrim Pilger; ~age Pilgerfahrt
 pillar Pfeiler *pi'lər* [*pɪl'grɪm*]

pilot Lotse *pai'lət*
 pin Stednadel, Stift *pin*
 pinch kneifen, abkneifen *pɪntʃ*
 pine Fichte *pain*
 pink rosa *pɪnk*
 pint (0,567 Liter) *pənt* [*pai'əntər*]
 pioneer Pionier, Bahnbrecher
 pipe Pfeife, Röhre *pai:p*
 pirate Seeräuber; piratical seeräuberisch *pai'ret*, *pɪrətɪkəl*
 pitch Pech *pɪtʃ* [stampfen *pɪtʃ*]
 pitch (in den Boden) einstecken;
 pith Mark, Kern; ~y markig *pɪp*
 pity Erbarmen; it is a ~ es ist schade *piti*
 placard Plakat, Maueranschlag *plakəd* [stellen legen *pləis*]
 place Platz, Stelle, Ort, Wohnort;
 placid ruhig, sanft *plæ'sɪd*
 plague Pest *pleɪg*
 plaid schottisches Umjchlagetuch *pləd*
 plain Ebene; eben, offen, deutlich *pleɪn*
 plan Plan; planen *plæn*
 plant Pflanze; pflanzen, anlegen; ~ation Pflanzung *plənt*
 Plantagenet (S. 85) *pləntæ'dʒɪnət*
 plate Teller, Tafelgeschirr *pleɪt*
 platform Bahnsteig, Plattform, Redner *plætfɔrm*
 platinum Platin *plætɪnəm*
 play Spiel, Schauspiel; spielen; ~er Schauspieler; ~ful scherzhaft; ~wright Schauspiel-dichter *pleɪ(r)raɪt*
 plea Verteidigung *pli*
 pleasant angenehm, lieblich; please gefallen, belieben; please (= be-liebe [geruhe], belieben [geruhen] Sie =) bitte; pleasure Vergnügen *plezənt*, *plɪz*, *pleʒər*
 plenty Fülle; in Fülle vorhanden *plenti*
 pliable biegsam *plaiəbəl*
 plight mißlich verwickelte Lage, heikler Zustand *plait*
 plough Pflug; (durch)pflügen; ~man Pflüger, Bauer *plau*, *pləumən*
 pluck Zug, Schneid, Mut; reißen *plʌk*
 plum Pflaume, Rosine *plʌm*
 plume sich brüsten *plʌm*
 plunder plündern *plʌndər*
 plunge untertauchen, versinken, sich bäumen *plʌndʒ*

plus pluß *pluſ*
 plush Plüsch *pluſ*
 ply hin und her fahren, den Verkehr
 vermitteln *plāi*
 Plymouth (Devonshire) *plimʷəp*
 pneumatic Luftreifen *numæ'tik*
 pocket Tasche; -handkerchief
 Taschentuch *pokit, hæŋkərtʃif*
 Poe (S. 171) *pōu*
 poem Gedicht *pōu'm*
 poet Dichter; -ical poetisch; -ry
 Poesie, Gedicht *pōu't, pōu'et'ikəl,*
pōu'tri
 point Punkt, Spitze; an-, zuspitzen
 hinzeigen; -at mit dem Finger hin-
 zeigen auf; -out hinweisen auf;
 -er Zeiger, Zeigestock *pōint, -er*
 poison Gift; vergiften; -ous giftig
pōizn(əs)
 poker Schüreisen *pōukər*
 Poldhu (Cornwall) *pōu'tdu*
 pole Pol; Stange *pōut*
 police Polizei *pōlis*
 policy Politik *pō'lis*
 polish polieren; polite höflich;
 politeness Höflichkeit *pō'lis, plāit*
 political politisch; politician Poli-
 tiker, Staatsmann; politics Staats-
 kunst *pōlitikəl, pōlit'isən, pō'litiks*
 Marco Polo (venetianischer Reisender,
 † um 1324) *mārko pōulo*
 Pomerania Pommern *pōmərē'nā*
 pomp Pracht; Schwall *pomp*
 Pompey Pompejus *pō'mpi*
 pond Teich *pōnd*
 pool Pfuhl *pū*
 poor arm, armseelig, dürftig *pūər*
 pope Papst *pōp*
 poplar Pappel *pō'plər*
 populace Volksmenge; popular volks-
 tümlich, des Volkes; popularity
 Volkstümlichkeit; population Be-
 völkerung; populous bevölkert
pō'pju:ls, pō'pju:lər, pō'pju:lə'rɪti,
pō'pju:l'isən, pō'pju:ls
 porch Türhalle *pōrtʃ*
 pork Schweinefleisch *pōrk*
 porridge Haferbrei, dicke breiartige
 Suppe *pō'ridʒ*
 port Hafen *pōrt*

portable tragbar *pōrtəbəl*
 portal Haupteingang *pōrtəl*
 porter Gepäckträger; Porterbier *pōrtər*
 Portia *pōrʃā*
 portion Teil *pōrʃən*
 portmanteau Handkoffer *pōrtmæ'nto*
 portrait Bildnis; portrayal Bild;
 portrayer Zeichner *pōr'trit, pōr-*
trəi'ət
 Portsmouth (Hampshire) *pōrtsmʷəp*
 Portugal Portugal; Portuguese por-
 tugiesisch *pōrtu'gəl, pōrtu'giz*
 position Stellung, Lage; positive
 positiv, bestimmt *pōzi'sən, pō'zitiv*
 posses besitzen; -sion Besitz; to
 take -of in Besitz nehmen; pos-
 sessive besitzanzeigend *pōze'sən,*
pōze'siv
 possible möglich; possibility Mög-
 lichkeit *pō'sibəl, pō'sibi'liti*
 post Stelle, Pfoften, Posten, Post;
 anschlagen, anheften; aufstellen;
 einen Brief zur Post befördern;
 postage Postgebühr, Porto; -al
 postalisch; postman Briefträger;
 post-office Postamt; post-office
 order Postanweisung *pōust, pōust'idʒ,*
pōustmən, pōust ə'fis (ə'dr)
 posterior (to) später (als); nach-
 folgend *pōstəriər*
 post-graduate einer, der nach Er-
 langung des ersten akademischen
 Grades noch weiter an der Uni-
 versität studiert *pōustgræ'duət*
 posy Blumenstrauß *pōuzi*
 pot Topf, Kanne *pət*
 potato Kartoffel *pōtə'to*
 potent mächtig; potentate Macht-
 haber *pōu'tənt(et)*
 poultry Geflügel *pōuttri*
 pound Pfund *pāund*
 pour eingießen; -in hineinfleuern *pōr*
 poverty Armut *pə'vɜrti*
 powder Pulver *pāudər*
 power Macht, Kraft, Stärke, Potenz;
 -ful mächtig; -less machtlos *pāuər*
 practical praktisch, angewandt; prac-
 tice Übung, Anwendung, Gewohn-
 heit; practise üben; practicable
 ausführbar, tunlich; practically

adv. in Wirklichkeit, tatsächlich
præ'ktikəl, *præktis*, *præ'ktikəbəl*,
præ'ktikəl

praise Lob; loben *prēiz* [*prēz*]

pray beten, bitten; ~er Gebet *prēi*,

preach predigen; ~er Prediger *prūs*

precaution Vorsichtsmaßregel *prī-*
kō'shən

precede vorher-, vorangehen *prīsēd*

precept Vorschrift *prīsept*

precious kostbar *pre'shəs*

precise genau *prīsāiz*

predecessor Vorgänger *prīdēs'sə*

predicate Prädikat; predicative
prē'diket, *prē'dī'ktiv* [*minənt*]

predominant vorherrschend *prīdō-*

preface Vorrede; mit einer Vorrede
 versehen; einleiten *prē'fəs*

prefer vorziehen; ~able wünschens-

wert *prīfər*, *prē'fərbəl* *prīf'iks*

prefix Vorfixe *prī'fiks*; vorsetzen

prehistoric vorgefichtlich *prīhīstō'rik*

prelude Vorspiel *prē'lūd* [*nəri*]

preliminary Vor-, einleitend *prīlī'mi-*

premature vorzeitig *prīmātūr*

premier erster Minister *pre'miər*

preparation Vorbereitung; to pre-
 pare (sich) vorbereiten *prə'pærē'shən*,
prə'pər [*prī'pəri*]

prepay vorausbezahlen, frankieren

preposition Verhältniswort; ~al
prə'pōzī'shən

pre-Raffaelite *prī'ræ'flaīt* = 'vor der

Zeit des italienischen Malers Raffae-
 lle, 1483–1520'. Die präraphaeli-
 stische Malerschule (J. E. Millais,
 Holman Hunt, Burne-Jones) fand
 ihre Vorbilder in der italienischen
 Kunst vor Raffael (Idealge-
 stalten, zarte himmlische Wesen,
 Engel). Die damit zusammen-
 hängende Kunst- und Litera-
 turrichtung (des Ästhetikers John
 Ruskin, der Dichter Rossetti,
 William Morris, Swinburne) führt
 ebenfalls in eine erträumte, wunder-
 bare Welt, „in welcher das Leben
 Poesie und Poesie das Leben ist“.
 Ihr Symbol war die Lilie, ihr
 Wesen eine Auflehnung der leben-

digen Kraft gegen das erstarrte
 Gesetz und die Unnatur der kon-
 ventionalen Kunstbegriffe

Presbyterian presbyterianisch *presbi-*

Prescott *pre'skət* [*tī'rən*]

presence Anwesenheit Gegenwart
pre'zəns

present Geschenk; gegenwärtig, an-
 wesen; ~ly alsbald, sofort; to ~
 darbieten, überreichen, vorstellen
prezənt, to *prezənt* (S. 281)

preservation Erhaltung, Aufbewah-
 rung; to preserve aufbewahren
prīzərv, *prīzərvē'shən*

preside den Vorsitz führen; ~nt
 Präsident *prīzīd*, *prē'zīdnt*

press Tagespresse, Zeitungswesen; to
 ~ drängen; ~ure Pressen, Druck
pres, *pre'ss*

Preston (Lancashire) *prestin*

pretence Scheingrund, Anspruch;

pretend vorschützen, behaupten;

~er Bewerber, Prätendent *pr-*
tens, *pretend*

Pretoria *prē'tōriä*

pretty hübsch *priti*

prevail den Sieg davontragen,
 herrschen *prə'veīt*

previous vorher, früher *prī'vīəs*

prevent verhindern *prə'vent*

prey Raub, Beute *prei*

price Preis, Kosten *prāis*

pride Stolz; stolz sein *prāid*

priest Priester *prīst*

primary ursprünglich, Haupt-,
 Grund-; primate Primas; prime
 das Erste (Prima), jugendliche Voll-
 kraft; ~ minister erster Minister
prāiməri, *prāimət*, *prāim*

primitive ursprünglich *prī'mitiv*

primrose Schlüsselblume, Primel
prī'mrōuz

prince Fürst; princess Prinzessin,
 Fürstin *prins*, *prīnses*

principal hauptsächlich; principality
 Fürstentum *prīnsipəl*, *prīnsipə'litē*

principle Grundsatz, Prinzip *prī'nsipəl*

print Druck, drucken; ~er Drucker;
 ~ing Druck; printing-press

Druckerpresse *print*, *printings*

prior to eher als, vor *praiər*
 prison Gefängnis; -er Gefangener
 private Privat- *praiˈvət* [*priːzən*]
 prize Belohnung, Prämie *prāːz*
 pro- zu Gunsten, für *prōu*, *pro*
 probable wahrscheinlich *prɔːbəbəl*
 problem schwierige Aufgabe *prɔːbləm*
 proceed vorrücken; -ing Vorgang;
 procedure Vorgehen; Verfahren;
prəsiːd, *prəsiːdjuər*
 process Vorgang, Verfahren; vor-
 gehen, sich begeben, sich verfügen;
 -ion Festzug *prɔːses*, *proːseʃn*
 proclaim verkünden; proclamation
 Verkündung *prɔːkleɪm*, *prɔːkləmeɪʃn*
 procrastinate auf morgen verschieben;
 procrastination Aufschieben auf
 morgen *prɔːkrəstɪneɪʃn*
 proctor Verwalter, Aufseher
 produce Ertrag; hervorführen,
 -bringen, erzeugen; product, pro-
 duction Ergebnis, Erzeugnis *prɔː-
 dʌs*, *prɔːdʌkt*, *prɔːdʌkʃn*
 profession Beruf *prɔːfeʃn*
 proffer anbieten *prɔːfər*
 proficiency Fortschritt, Fertigkeit
prɔːfɪʃnsi [*prɔːfɪt*]
 profile Seitenansicht, Querschnitt
 profit Nutzen, Gewinn; Nutzen ziehen;
 -able gewinnbringend *prɔːfɪt*
 profound tief *prɔːfaʊnd*
 progenitor Vorfater *prɔːdʒəˈnɪtər*
 progress Fortschritt, -e, Reise; -ive
prɔːɡres, *prɔːgrɛsɪv*
 project Plan; -or Plänenmacher,
 Erfinder *prɔːdʒekt*, *prɔːdʒektər*
 prologue Prolog *prɔːˈlɒɡ*
 prominent hervorragend
 promise Versprechen; to ~ versprechen
prɔːmɪs [*prɔːməʊt*]
 promote (be-)fördern; -or Förderer
 prompt schnell; vorsagen, zuflüstern
prɔːmpt
 pronoun Pronomen *prɔːˈnaʊn*
 pronounce aussprechen; pronun-
 ciation Aussprache *prɔːˈnaʊns*, *prɔː-
 nʌnsɪˈeɪʃn*
 proof Beweis, Probe *pruːf*
 proper eigen, eigentlich; -ly *adv.*
 ordentlich, gehörig, eigentlich; -ty

Eigentum, Eigenschaft; -noun
 Eigennamen *prɔːpər(tɪ)*, *prɔːpərli*
 prophecy Prophezeiung *prɔːˈfisi*; to
 prophesy prophezeien *prɔːˈfisaɪ*;
 prophet, -ic prophetisch *prɔːˈfɛt*;
prɔːfetik
 proportion Verhältnis *prɔːpɔːʃn*
 propose vorschlagen, denken, beab-
 sichtigen; proposition (Lehr-)Satz
prɔːpəʊz, *prɔːpəˈziʃn*
 prose ungebundene Rede, Prosa *prɔːz*
 prosody Lehre der Silbenmessung
prɔːsədi
 prosper gedeihen, Glück haben; -ity
 Gedeihen *prɔːspər*, *prɔːspərɪti*
 protect schützen; -ion Schutz; -
 ionist Anhänger des Schutzzoll-
 systems; -ective schützend, Schutz;
 -or Beschützer, Reichsverweiser;
 -orate Protektorat *prɔːtekt*, *prɔː-
 tekʃn*, *prɔːtekʃnɪst*, *prɔːtektɪv*,
prɔːtektorət
 protestant Protestant; -ism *prɔː-
 tɪstənt*, *prɔːˈtɪstəntɪzəm*
 protract in die Länge ziehen *prɔːtrækt*
 proud stolz *praʊd*
 prove beweisen, sich erweisen als *prəʊv*
 proverb Sprichwort; -ial sprich-
 wörtlich *prɔːˈvɜːb*, *prɔːˈvɜːbiəl*
 provide versehen, ausrüsten; -d
 vorausgesetzt; providence Vor-
 sehung *prəˈvaɪd*, *prəˈvɪdəns*
 province Provinz, provincial *prəˈvɪns*,
prəˈvɪnʃəl
 provision Vorkehrung, Verordnung;
 Vorrat *prəˈvɪʒn*
 prudence Vorsicht, Klugheit *pruːdəns*
 Prussia Preußen; -n Preuße; preu-
 ßisch *pruːʃə*
 psalm Psalm *səm* 12, 4
 pseudonym 12, 5
 psychological 12, 5 *səˈɪkələˈdʒɪkəl*
 Ptolemaic *tɒləˈmiːɪk* (Ptolemy 12, 6,
 Greek-Egyptian geographer and
 astronomer, fl[ourished] 2^d c[en-
 tury]).
 public öffentlich, Publikum; -ation
 Veröffentlichung; publish veröffent-
 lichen; publisher Verleger *pʌblɪk*,
pʌblɪkəˈʃn, *pʌˈblɪʃ*, *pʌˈblɪʃər*

puff der stark hervorgestoßene Hauch,
Paff; aufblasen, aufblähen *pvf*
pull ziehen *put*
pulpy fleischig, breiig *pv'tp*
pulse Puls; pulsate pulsieren *pvt's,*
pv'tsēt

punch durchstanzen, -lochen *pvt's*
punctual pünktlich *pv'kt'suēt*
punctuation Interpunktion, Satz-
zeichensetzung *pv'kt'suē'sh*
punish bestrafen; -ment Bestrafung;
punitive strafend, Straf- *pvt's,*
pv'ntiv

punkah S. 179, Fußn. *pv'kt's*
pupil Schüler *pv'p'lt*
purchase kaufen *pā't's*
pure rein; Puritan Puritaner;
puritanisch; Puritanism; purity
Reinheit *pv'ar,* *pv'rit'n,* *pv'rit-*
nizm, *pv'riti*

purple Purpur *pā'rt*
purpose Zweck; -ly *adv.* absichtlich
purse Börse *pā'rs* [*pā'rs(l)*]
pursue verfolgen, vorwärtschreiten;
pursuit Verfolg(ung) *pā'si'āl(t)*

John Purvey 1353—1428 *pā'v*
push Stoß; stoßen, schieben *pu's*
put setzen, stellen, legen; - off auf-
schieben, abfahren; - up with
sich hinwegsetzen über, sich gefallen
lassen; - forth vortragen; - on
anschließen *put*

Putney südw. Vorort Londons *pvt'n*
puzzle Rätsel; verwirren *pvt't*
pyramid *pī'r'mid*

quack Pfuscher, Marktschreier *kū'æk*
quadruple vervierfachen *kū'o'drup't*
Quaker (Zitterer), Quäker *kū'ē'kər*
quality bestimmen, bezeichnen *kū'o'li'sai*
quality Eigenschaft, vornehmer Rang,
Stand *kū'o'li'ti*

quantitative; quantity Umfang,
Masse, Menge *kū'o'ntit'iv;* *kū'o'ntiti*
quarrel Streit; streiten *kū'o'r't*
quarter Viertel, Stadtviertel; Quar-
tier; Standort; close quarters
ganz naher Abstand; beherbergen,
Nachtlager geben *kū'o'r'tər* [*kū'*]
quay Uferstraße, Strandweg, Stadenf

Quebec (Kanada) *kū'ē'k*
queen Königin *kū'ē'n*
Queenborough (Kent) *kū'ē'n'bō'rō*
Queensland (austral. Staat) *kū'ē'nz-*
lānd

quell dämpfen, löschen *kū'ē't*
question Frage *kū'ē'st'sh*
quick schnell; -en beschleunigen, be-
leben; -ness Schnelligkeit *kū'ē'k(n's)*
quiet still, ruhig *kū'ē'ēt*

Quincey *kū'ē'n's*
quire Buch (24 Bogen) *kū'ē'ər*
quit verlassen *kū'it*
quite ganz *kū'ē'it*
quotation mündliche Anführung,
Zitat; -marks Anführungszeichen;
direct - direkte Rede; quote an-
führen, zitieren *kū'ō'tē'sh,* *kū'ō't*

race Geschlecht, Rasse *rēs*
race Wettrennen, -lauf, -fahren;
wettrennen *rēs*

rack Gestell, Ständer, feste Vor-
richtung zum Daraufliegen des
Handgepäckes *ræk*

radiant strahlend, glänzend *rē'di'ant*
rafter Dachsparren *rā'stər*

rag Lumpen; -ged zerlumpt *ræg(d)*
rage Wut; wüten *rē'dž*

rail Schiene; Geländer; -way Eisen-
bahn *rē'it*

rain Regen; regnen; -y regnerisch,
regenschwer *rē'in* [wecken *rē'iz*]

raise emporheben, aufrichten, auf-
Raleigh *rō'le,* *rē'le*

Ralph *ræt'f,* *rō'f,* *rē'f*

rambler Umherstreifer, Bummler
rampart Wall *ræ'mpərt* [*ræ'mblər*]

Ramsgate (Kent) *ræ'mzge't*
ranch (amerik.) Viehwirtschaft *rā'nš*

range Reihe, Kette, Bereich *rē'indž*
rank Rang, Reihe; einen Rang ein-
nehmen, einreihen *ræ'ŋk*

ransom Lösegeld *ræ'nsəm*
rapid schnell, schnell *ræpid*

rapture Entzücken, Begeisterung
rare selten *rē'ər* [*ræ'pt'sər*]

rascal Schurke, Halunke *ræ'skə't*
raspberry Himbeere *ræzbəri*

rather eher, vielmehr, ziemlich *rā'dər*

rational vernunftgemäß *ræ'tʃnəl*
 rattle Gerassel; rasseln *rætl*
 raven Rabe *rævn*
 ravish mit Gewalt fortreißen, hinreißen, entücken *ræ'viʃ*
 ray Strahl *rēi*
 razor Rasiermesser *rēizər*
 reach (er)reichen; Bereich *ri:tʃ*
 reaction Gegenbewegung *ri-æ'kʃn*
 read lesen; -able leserlich; -er Leser, ein *ri:dəbl, ri:dər*
 Reading (Verfshire) *rē'diŋ*
 ready fertig, bereit *rē'di*
 real wirklich; -estate Grundeigentum; -ity Wirklichkeit; -ize verwirklichen, erkennen; *ri:əl (stēit), ri:ə'li:t, ri:ə'ləiz*
 realm Reich *reɪm*
 re-animate wiederbeleben *ri-æ'nimənt*
 reap ernten, reifen *rēp*
 rear erheben, aufrichten *rēər*
 reason Grund; by ~ of durch; to ~ erwägen; -able vernünftig, verhältnismäßig; -er Denker *ri:zn, -əbl*
 Réaumur (französischer Naturforscher, † 1757) *rē'muər*
 rebel Aufständischer; sich empören; rebellion Aufstand *re'bl, t rəbet,*
 recall zurückrufen *rikəl* [*rəbe'leɪn*]
 re-cast umgießen, umändern *rikāst*
 receipt Empfang, Quittung; receive empfangen *ri'si:t, ri:siv ri:sənt*
 recent neu, kürzlich; -ly neuerdings reception Empfang *rə'se'pʃn*
 recipient Empfänger *rə'si'pɪənt*
 reciprocal *rə'si'prəkəl*
 recitation das Hersagen des mündlich Aufgegebenen *rə'stē'iʃn*
 reckon rechnen *rekn*
 recognition Anerkennung; recognize (wieder)erkennen, anerkennen *rekə'g-niʃn, rē'kəg-nəiz*
 recollect sich erinnern; -ion Erinnerung *ri:kə'le'kʃn* [*kə'məndə'iʃn*]
 recommendation Empfehlung re- recompense Belohnung *rē'kəmpəns*
 reconcile versöhnen *rē'kənsəɪt*
 record Registrierung, urkundliche Aufzeichnung *re'kɔrd*; eintragen, aufzeichnen *t rəkɔrd*

recover wieder erlangen, sicher holen; recovery Wiedererlangung *ri'kəvər*
 recreation Erholung *rēkre'iʃn*
 rectangle rechtwinklig(e Figur), Rechteck; rectangular rechtwinklig *re'ktəŋɡl, rēktæ'ŋɡjələr*
 recur to zurückkommen auf, Zuflucht nehmen zu, wiederkehren *rəkər*
 red rot *red*
 redress abhelfen, bessern *rədre's*
 reduce zurückführen, herabsetzen *rədʒəs*
 reduction Herabsetzung *rəkʊ'kʃn*
 reef Riff *rif*
 reel taumeln *ril*
 refer to zurückweisen auf, anspielen auf, erwähnen; reference Beziehung, Empfehlung *refər, re'fərəns*
 refined fein geläutert; refinement Verfeinerung *rifaɪnd*
 reflection Erwägung, Betrachtung, Widerspiegelung, Zurückstrahlen, reflective überlegend, nachdenklich *rɪflek'tʃn* [*fle'ksiʊ*]
 reflexive reflexiv, rückbezüglich *rɪ-*
 reformation Umbildung *rə'fɔrmə'iʃn*
 reformer Reformator, Umbildner *rə'fɔrmər* [frischung *rəfre'shmənt*]
 refresh erfrischen; -ment Er-
 refuge Zufluchtsort *re'fʊdʒ*
 refuse verweigern *rɪ'fju:z*
 refutation Widerlegung *refu'te'iʃn*
 regard Rücksicht, Beziehung; to ~ (as) betrachten (als) *rə'gɑrd*
 regent regierend; regiment Regiment *ri:dʒənt, re'dʒimənt*
 region Gegend *ri'dʒən*
 register Verzeichnis, einschreiben; registrar Registrator, Standesbeamter *re'dʒistər, re'dʒistrər*
 regret Bedauern; bedauern *rə'gret*
 regular regelrecht, -mäßig; to regulate regeln, ordnen; regulation Regelung, Vorschrift; regularity Regelmäßigkeit *regjələr, regjuleɪt, regjule'iʃn, regjələ'riti*
 reign Regierungszeit; regieren *rēin*
 reinforcement Verstärkung *rɪn'fɔrs-*
 reject verwerfen *rə'dʒekt* [*mənt*]
 rejoice at sich freuen über; rejoicing Freudenbezeugung *ri'dʒɔɪs*

rekindle wieder entflammen *rikɪˈndɪ*
 relate berichten, sich beziehen; ~d
 verwandt; relation Beziehung, Be-
 richt; relation, relative Ver-
 wandter; relation(ship) Ver-
 wandtschaft; relative relativ, zu-
 rückweisend; ~clause Relativsatz
riˈleɪt(ɪd), riˈleɪʃn, reˈlɪv, reˈlɪʃnʃɪp,
reˈlɪv

relax schlaff machen, erschlaffen; ab-
 spannen, erheitern *reˈlæks*

release loslassen *reˈlɪs*

relic Überbleibsel *reˈlɪk*

relief Entsatz, Befreiung; relieve
 entsetzen, erleichtern, (von einer
 Angst) befreien, beruhigen, unter-
 brechen *reˈlɪf, reˈlɪv*

religion Religion; religious religiös,
reˈlɪdʒən, reˈlɪdʒɪəs [relic]

relique altertümliche Schreibung für
 rely on sich verlassen auf *reˈlaɪ*

remain Überbleibsel; (übrig) bleiben;
 ~der Rest *reˈmeɪn, reˈmeɪnɪər*

remark Bemerkung, bemerken; ~able
 bemerkenswert, hervorragend *reˈmɑːk(əbəl)*

remedy Heilmittel *reˈmɛdi*

remembrance Erinnerung, Andenken;
 Empfehlung, Gruß; to remember
 (sich) erinnern (an) *reˈmembəns*

remind erinnern *reˈmaɪnd*

remodel umgestalten *reˈmɔːdəɪt*

remote entfernt, weit *reˈmoʊt*

remove Verjagung, Umzug; ~d
 entrückt, fern *reˈmʊv*

Renaissance (Renaissance) = re-
 vival of learning Zeitalter (der
 Wiedergeburt) des Wiederauflebens
 der antiken Künste und Literaturen
riˈnɛsəns, rɪˈnɛsəns, riˈnɛsəns

rend zerreißen *rend*

render wiedergeben, übersetzen, leisten;
 machen; ~ing Wiedergabe *rendər*

renown Ruhm; ~ed berühmt *reˈnaʊn*

rent Miete, (Pacht-)Zins *rent*

rent Riß *rent*

repair Ausbesserung, ausbessern; hin-
 gehen, sich hinbegeben *reˈpɛər*

repatch nochmals flicken *reˈpætʃ*

repeal Widerrufung, Aufhebung *reˈpiːl*

repeat wiederholen; ~edly wieder-
 holentlich *reˈpiːt, reˈpiːtɪdli*

repel zurückstoßen *reˈpeɪl*

repertoire Verzeichnis der zur Auf-
 führung kommenden Bühnenstücke
reˈpɔːtuwɔːr

repetition Wiederholung *reˈpiːtɪʃn*

replace ersetzen *riˈpleɪs* [*riˈplɛːnɪʃ*]

replenish neu füllen, wieder anfüllen;
 reply Erwiderung; erwidern *reˈplai*

report Bericht, Zensur; berichten re-
 ferieren, inhaltlich wiedererzählen
reˈpɔːrt

represent darstellen, vertreten; ~ative
 Vertreter (Representative Men
 = typische Vertreter ihrer Schaffens-
 gebiete: führende Geister); ~ation
 Darstellung *reˈprezənt, reˈprezənt-
 ɪv, reˈprezəntɪvʃn*

reproduction Wiedergabe, Nachbil-
 dung *riˈprɔːdʊkʃn*

republic Republik; ~an Republi-
 kaner *riˈpʊblɪk*

reputation Ruf, Ruhm *reˈpʊtɪvʃn*

request Bitte; ersuchen *reˈkwest*

require erfordern, verlangen; ~ment
 Erfordernis *reˈkwaɪər*

rescue befreien *reˈskjuː*

research Forschung *riˈsɔːrtʃ*

resemble ähneln *reˈzembl*

reserve zurückbehalten; aufsparen;
reˈzɔːrv

reside wohnen; ~nce Wohnsitz *reˈz-
 ɪd, reˈzɪdɪns*

resign überlassen, anheimgeben; ent-
 sagen, verzichten auf, zurücktreten
reˈzaɪn

resolute entschlossen; resolution
 Entschluß; resolve beschließen,
 Entschluß *reˈzɒlət, reˈzɒləʃn, reˈzɒl-
 v*

resort Versammlungsort, Sammel-
 punkt *reˈzɔːrt*

resource Hilfsquelle *riˈsɔːrs*

respect Hochachtung, Ehrerbietung;
 achten; ~able achtbar, ansehnlich;
 ~ful ehrerbietig; ~ing mit Bezug
 auf; ~ive betreffend, besonders
respekt

resplendent glänzend *respleˈndənt*
 responsibility Verantwortlichkeit;

responsible verantwortlich *r-sponsib'li'ti, r-sponsib'l*
 rest Rest; Raft, Ruhe; raften, ruhen;
 the rest die übrigen; *rest*
 restoration Wiederherstellung; re-
 store wiedergeben, zurückbringen,
 wiederherstellen *restor'e'sh'n, restōr*
 restrain zurückhalten, einschränken
ristrein
 restrictive einschränkend *r'striktiv*
 result Ergebnis *rezult*
 retail Kleinhandel, Einzelverkauf; ein-
 zeln verkaufen *ritēit, t ritēit*
 retain bei-, zurückbehalten *ritēin*
 retinue Gefolge *retin'nu*
 retire sich zurückziehen *retāir*
 retouch überarbeiten, nachbessern
retotš [leit]
 to retranslate retrovertieren *ritrans-*
 return Rückkehr; in ~ of zum Ent-
 gelt für; zurückkehren; zurückfer-
 statten; -thanks Dank abtatten
 Rev. = reverend [r'tōrn]
 reveal offenbaren, enthüllen; -er
 Offenbarer; revelation Offen-
 barung *revit, revel'e'sh'n*
 reveille(e) Wecken; Weckruf zu
 einem neuen Tage *reve'tō*
 revelation Offenbarung *revol'e'sh'n*
 revelry Jubel, rauschende Lustbar-
 keit mit Festgelage *rev'vri*
 revenge Rache; -ful rachsüchtig
rve'ndžfat
 Paul Revere pōt *rivr'r*
 reverence Ehrerbietung; verehren;
 reverend ehrwürdig, Ehrwürden
 (Titel der Geistlichen) *rev'rns,*
rev'rnd
 reversal Umkehrung; reverse Kehr-
 seite, Umkehrung; umkehren *rivōrs*
 review Rückblick, Musterung *rvū*
 revise durchsehen *rvāiz*
 revisit wieder besuchen *rviv'zit*
 revival Neubelebung; revive wieder-
 beleben, erneuern; reviver Wieder-
 erwecker *rvāv(ot)*
 revolution Ummwälzung; Drehung;
 -ize umwälzen, völlig neugestalten;
 revolve (sich) umbdrehen *rvōlv,*
rvolv'šn

reward Belohnung, belohnen *rvōrd*
 rewrite nochmals schreiben *rvīrāt*
 Reynolds (portrait painter 1723—
 1792, S. 161) *rē'noltz*
 Rhenish rheinisch, Rhein-; Rhine
 Rhein *rē'nš, rāin*
 rhetoric Redekunst *rē'trik*
 Rhodes (1853—1902), Rhodesia
rōudz, rodžū
 rhododendron Alpenrose *rōud'de'n-*
dron
 rhyme Reim, Vers; reimen *rāim*
 rhythm Ebenmaß, taktmäßig abge-
 messener Wohlklang *ripm*
 ribbon Band *rib'n*
 rice Reis *rāis*
 rich reich *ritš*
 Richard *ritš'ord*
 Richardson *ritš'ords'n*
 Richborough (Kent) *ritš'b'or*
 riches plur. Reichtum *ritš'iz*
 Richmond (Surrey) (Yorkshire)
 rid frei, ledig *rid* § 71 b [ritš'məndš]
 riddle Rätsel *ridt*
 ride Ritt, Fahrt; reiten, fahren;
 -r Reiter, Radfahrer *rāid*
 ridicule Verspottung *ri'dikul*
 rifle (mit Zügen versehenes) Gewehr;
 -man Scharfschütze *rāift, rāiftmən*
 rig up aufstakeln, aufschlagen *rig up*
 right Recht; richtig; -ful recht-
 mäßig *rāit*
 rigorous streng, scharf *rīg'ras*
 rime = rhyme; -less reimlos
 ring Ring; läuten, klingeln, gellen;
 -back Antwort-, Klingelzeichen
 rip (auf-)schlißen, dahinjagen *rip* [riŋ]
 ripple sanftes Wellengefräusel *ript*
 rise Erhebung, Ursprung; sich er-
 heben, aufgehen, entspringen *rāiz*
 risk wagen, Gefahr laufen *risk*
 rival nebenbuhlerisch, feindslich; -ry
 Nebenbuhlerschaft, Feindseligkeit
rāiv(ri)
 river Fluß; -side Flußufer *rivr*
 rivet nieten *rivot*
 rivulet Flüsschen *ri'vulət*
 road Land-, Fahrstraße; -side Seite
 an der Landstraße; -way Wagen-
 damm *rōud, rōudsāid, -žei*

roam herumstreifen *rōum*
 roar Gebrüll, Geschrei; brüllen,
 brausen, toben, lärmern *rōr*
 roast (to roast on the grill [auf
 dem Rost], on the spit [am Spieß])
 braten; das Gebratene *rōust*
 rob berauben *rōb*
 robe Amtsleid, Amtstracht anlegen
 Robert *rō'bɔrt* [*rōub*]
 Robin Hood (sagenhafter outlaw)
rō'bin hud
 Robinson *rō'bɪnsn*
 rock Felsen; schaukeln, wiegen; rocky
 felsig *rɔk, rɔk*
 roe Rinde, Hirschkuh *rōu*
 Røbling (deutscher Ingenieur) *rōublin*
 Sir Roger de Coverley *rō'dʒər*
də kɒvərli
 rogue Spitzbube, Schelm *rōug*
 roll Rolle; Brötchen; rollen, schlin-
 gern; -er Rollstab *rōul*
 Rollright (Oxfordshire) *rōul rait*
 Roman Römer; römisch *rōuman*
 romance Romanze; -r Roman-
 schriftsteller; romantic romantisch
rɔmæ'ns, rɔmæ'ntik
 Romanic romanisch; Rome Rom
rɔmæ'nik, rōum
 Romeo *rōu'mɔ*
 Ronan *rōu'nɔn*
 roof Dach *ruf*
 room Raum, Zimmer *rūm*
 root Wurzel; einwurzeln lassen *rūt*
 Roosevelt *rōu'zɒvɛt*
 rope Tau *rōp*
 Roper (engl. Reisender, † um 1850)
 rose Rose *rōuz* [*rōupɔr*]
 Rossetti *rɔsɛ'ti*
 Rotherhithe südöstl. Stadtteil Lon-
 don *rɔ'ðərhaɪt*
 rotten verfault, morsch, verfallen *rɔtn*
 rough rauh, roh *rɔf*
 round rund, ringsumher, die Runde;
prep. herum um; umfahren *rāund*
 roundabout weitschweifig, umständ-
 lich *rāu'ndbaʊt* [*rāuz*]
 rouse aufmuntern, aufraffen, aufjagen
 route Weg, Reiseroute *rūt*
 rove herumstreifen; -r (See)räuber,
 Korsar *rōuvɔr*

row Reihe; rudern *rōu*
 Rowland *rōu'lənd*
 royal königlich; Royalist Anhänger
 des Königs oder des Königtums
rōi'əl, rōi'əlɪst
 rub reiben, radieren; -down ab-
 reiben; India -ber Radiergummi
rɒb, rɒbɔr
 rudder Steuerruder *rɒdɔr*
 rude roh *rūd*
 rue bereuen *rū*
 ruffle falten, aus der Ruhe bringen *rɒfl*
 rug grobe Decke, Reisebede; -ged
 rauh, zackig, zerklüftet *rɒg*
 Rugby *ræg'bɪ*
 ruin Verfall, Trümmer; ver-
 wüsten; -ous baufällig, verderb-
 lich *rū'in*
 rule Herrschaft, Regierung; Regel;
 regieren, herrschen über; -r Herr-
 schen; lineal; -rship Herrschaft;
rul(r), rul
 run rennen, laufen; einen Wortlaut
 (Inhalt) haben, lauten; -over
 überfließen *rɒn*
 rural ländlich *rū'rəl*
 rush ungestüm daherstürmen *rɒʃ*
 Ruskin *rɒs'kɪn*
 Russia Rußland; -n russisch *rɒʃə, }*
 rust Rost, (ver)rosten *rɒst [rɒʃ'n]*
 Rustrum *rɒ'strum*
 Ry = railway
 rye Roggen *rāi*

sabbath Sabbat *sæ'bɪp*
 sabre Säbel; niederjäheln *sæibɔr*
 sack Sack *sæk*
 sacrament Sakrament; sacred heilig;
 (to) sacrifice Opfer (opfern)
sæ'krɪmənt, sɛ'krɪd, sɛ'krɪfɪs
 sad traurig; -ness Traurigkeit
 saddle Sattel *sædt* [*sæd, sædnɪs*]
 safe wohlbehalten, sicher; fester
 Schrank; -ty Sicherheit *sɛɪf(tɪ)*,
 sagacity Scharfsinn *sægə'sɪtɪ*
 sage Weiser *sɛɪdʒ*
 sail Segel, -schiff; segeln; -or See-
 mann, Matrose *sɛɪl(r)*
 saint heilig *sɛɪnt* (vor einem Eigen-
 namen: *sɪnt* oder *sɛnt*)

sake Sache; forthe ~ of um...willen)
 salary Gehalt, Salär *sæ'brɪ* [*sɜ:k*]
 Salford (Lancashire) *sɔlfərd*
 Salic salisch *sæ'lik*
 Salisbury (Wiltshire) *sɔ'ltzbrɪ*
 Salomon *sæ'ləmən* (häufiger ist Solo-
 mon *sɔ'ləmən*)
 saloon Gesellschafts-saal *sə'lun*
 salt Salz *sɔlt*
 salubrity Heilsamkeit, Zuträglichkeit,
 (hygienisch), gesundheitfördernder
 Zustand *sə'lubriti*
 salutary heilsam, zuträglich *sæ'lutəri*
 salutation Begrüßung, Anrede; sa-
 lute Begrüßung(schuß); begrüßen
sælutei'shən, səlūt [*səlvē'i'shən*]
 salvation Rettung, Seligkeit, Heil)
 same selbst *seɪm*
 sample Probe, Muster *sæmpl*
 Samuel *sæ'mjuəl*
 sand Sand; ~y sandig; ~stone
 Sandstein *sænd*
 Sandhurst Berkshire *sæ'ndərst*
 sandwich (Vocabulary 17)
 Sandringham Norfolk *sæ'ndrɪŋəm*
 Saskatchewan (Fluß und Stadt in
 Kanada) *saskæ'tsɔvən*
 Sartor Resartus der geflickte Flicke-
 schneider *sɑrtər risɑrtəs*
 Satan Satān *sə'tən*
 satchel Schulmappe *sætʃəl*
 satellite Trabant *sætɪlaɪt*
 satire Spottschrift; satirist Satiriker;
 satirize verspotten *sæ'taɪər, sæ'tɪrɪst,*
sæ'tɪrəɪz
 satisfy befriedigen; satisfaction Ge-
 nugtuung *sætɪsfai, sətɪsfæ'kʃən*
 sauce Beiguß, Tunke; saucer Unter-
 tasse *sɔs(ər)*
 savage Wilder; wild *sæ'vɪdʒ*
 save ausgenommen; retten, erhalten,
 bewahren, sparen; savings-bank
 (-box) Sparkasse (-büchse) *səɪv*
 savoury würzig, schmackhaft *səɪ'vəri*
 Saxon sächsisch; ~y Sachsen *sæ'ksən(i)*
 say sagen; ~off aussagen; ~ing Ge-
 rede, Redensart *səɪɪŋ*
 scaffold Schafott *skæ'fɔld*
 scale Stufengang, Maßstab, Skala)
 scan skandieren *skæn* [*skēɪtʃ*]

Scandinavian skandinavisch *skændi-
 nə'vɪən*
 Scarborough (Yorkshire) *skɑr'bɔrə*
 scarce selten; ~ly kaum; scarcity
 Mangel *skɛərs(lɪ)*
 scarlet Scharlach, brennendes Rot)
 scatter zerstreuen *skætər* [*skɑrlɪt*]
 scene Schauplatz; ~ry Landschaft;
 scenic landschaftlich schön *sɪn, sɪnɪk*
 sceptre Herrscherstab; ~d zepter-
 tragend
 scheme Plan, Entwurf *skɪm*
 scholar Studienbesessener (Schüler,
 Student, Gelehrter), Stipendiat;
 ~ship Stipendium *skɔlər*
 scholastic schulmäßig, scholastisch
skɔlə'stɪk
 school Schule; ~boy Schüler; ~ling
 Schulbildung; ~men Scholastiker
skʉlbɔɪ, skʉlɪŋ
 science (Natur-)Wissenschaft; scien-
 tific wissenschaftlich; scientist
 Naturforscher *saiəns, saɪəntɪ'fɪk*
 scold ausschelten *skəʊld*
 scissors Schere *sɪzəz*
 score Stiege (20 Stück) *skɔr*
 Scotch schottisch; the ~ die Schotten;
 ~man Schotte; the Scots die
 Schotten; Scotland Schottland
skɔtʃ, skɔts
 scratch out austreiben *skrætʃ*
 scrawl kritzeln, schmieren *skrɔlt*
 screw Schraube; schrauben *skru*
 scripture heilige Schrift; scriptural
 biblisch *skriptʃər*
 scud laufen, fliehen *skʉd*
 sculpture Bildhauerkunst; Bildwerk
skʉlptʃər
 sea See; ~man Seemann; ~rover
 Seeräuber *si, si'rəʊvər*
 seal Siegel, Petschaft; siegeln; ~ing-
 wax Siegellack *si:l(ɪŋ)wæks*
 search Nachforschung; suchen *sɜ:tʃ*
 season Jahreszeit; zeitigen, zeitig zur
 Reise bringen *si:zən*
 seat Sitz, setzen *si:t*
 secession Absonderung, Abfall *sisə'shən*
 second Sekunde; ~ary Sekundär-,
 erst in zweiter Linie in Betracht
 kommend *se'kndəri*

secret geheim, Geheimnis; secretary
Geheimschreiber, Sekretär *sikrət*,
sə'krətəri

section Abschnitt, Paragraph, Para-
graphzeichen (§) *se'kʃən*

secure sicher; (sich) sichern, zusichern,
verschaffen, bestellen; security
Sicherheit *səkʊər*, *səkʊə'riti*

sedulous emsig, unverdrossen *sə'dʒʊləs*

see Bischofsstich *sɪ*

seed Same, Saat *sɪd*

seek suchen *sɪk*

Seeley *sɪl*

seem scheinen *sɪm*

seize ergreifen *sɪz*

seldom selten *setdəm*

select ausgewählt, erlesen, fein, vor-
nehmen; auswählen; -ion Auswahl

self das Selbst *seɪf* [*sɪleɪf*]

Selkirk *sɛ'lkɜrk*

sell verkaufen *set*

semi Halb- *semi*

senate Senat *se'nət*

to send schicken *send*

senior älter; -ity Ältestenwürde,
-recht *sɪ'nɪər*, *sɪ'nɪərɪti*

Senlac (Suffex) *senlək*

sennight = a week *sɛ'nait*

sensation Empfindung; -al Auf-
sehen erregend; sense Sinn, Ge-
fühl *sensɛ'sɪ'nət*, *sens*

sentence Urteilspruch, Satz; ver-
urteilen *se'ntəns*

sentiment Gefühl; -tal empfindsam,
rührselig; -alism Empfindsamkeit
sentɪ'mə'ntəl [*se'ntɪ'mənt*]

sentinel Schildwache, Wachposten

separate getrennt; trennen *sepə'reɪt*;
tə sə'pə'reɪt § 7 A.

Sepoy Sipahi *sɪ'pɔi*

sepulchre Grabmal *se'pʊlʃər*

sequence Folge *sɪkʊəns*

Serapis *sɛ'rəpɪs*

series Reihe *sɪ'riəs*

serious ernsthaft *sɪ'riəs*

serpent Schlange *sɜrpənt*

servant Diener; serve (be-)dienen;

service Dienstleistung, (Gottes-)

Dienst, Verkehr, Geschirr *sɜrvənt*,

sɜrv(ɪs)

serviette Mundtuch *sɜrvɪət*

servile knechtisch *sɜr'vɪl*

sesame der Sesam, Rumschut (arab.

Ölpflanze) *sɛ'səmi*

setstet Setztett

set Satz, Folge; setzen, untergehen,
einsetzen; - about unternehmen;
- forth aufbrechen, abreisen; - forth
on a journey eine Reise antreten;
- out for sich aufmachen nach; to
up sich einrichten; -ting Fassung,
Inszenierung *set*

settle festsetzen, ordnen, einrichten;
- down sich niederlassen; - ment
Ansiedelung; -r Ansiedler, Kolonist
sett, *setlmənt*

several verschieden, mehrere; einzeln
se'verəl

severe streng *sə'vɪr*

Severn (Fluß) *se'vern*

sex (S. 277) *seks*

shade, shadow Schatten; shadowy
schattenhaft *ʃeɪd*, *ʃæ'do*, *ʃæ'dəʊi*

shaft Schaft, Pfeil *ʃaft*

shake schütteln; - hands die Hand
drücken, geben; - off abschütteln *ʃeɪk*

Shakespeare *ʃeɪ'kspɪr*

shallow leicht, flach; -s Untiefe *ʃæ'lo*

shame Schmach, Schande, Scham

shamrock Klee *ʃæ'mrək* [*ʃeɪm*]

Shandy *ʃændi*

shandygaff Mischung aus ginger-
beer und etwas bitter ale (oder
stout) *ʃæ'ndɪgəf*

shank Unterschenkel, Schienbein *ʃæŋk*

Shannon *ʃænnən*

shape Gestalt; gestalten, schaffen;
-less unförmlich *ʃeɪp(ɪs)*

share Anteil; teilen, -in teilnehmen
an; -holder Teilhaber, Aktien-
inhaber, Aktionär; to share (in)
teilen, teilnehmen (an) *ʃɛər(həʊldər)*

sharp scharf *ʃɑrp*

shatter zerfchmettern *ʃætər*

shave rasieren *ʃeɪv*

sheaf Garbe *ʃɪf*

shear scherren *ʃɪər*

shed Hütte *ʃed*

shed vergießen, ausschütten, ver-
breiten *ʃed*

sheep Schaf, -e; ~-run ausgedehnte
 Schaftrift *šip*
 Sheerness (Kent) *šir'nəs*
 sheet Bogen, Blatt; Bettlaken *šit*
 Sheffield (Yorkshire) *še'fild*
 shelf Bücherbrett *šelf*
 shell Muschel, Schale, Bombe *šet*
 Sheridan, Lustspiel-Dichter, 1751—
 1816 *še'r'dən*
 shelter Obdach, Schutz; schützen *šettər*
 shepherd Hirt *šepərd*
 shield Schild *šild*
 shift verändern; ~ing veränderlich *šift*
 shin Schienbein *šin*
 shine scheinen *šain*
 ship Schiff; zu Schiffe fortschaffen,
 verladen; ~wrecked schiffbrüchig
 shire Grafschaft *šair* [*šip*, *šip'rekt*]
 shirt (Männer- oder Kinder-) Hemd *šört*
 shock Anprall, Zusammenstoß; ~ing
 anstößig, unerhört *šok(in)*
 shoe Schuh, Hufeisen; beschlagen *ša*
 shoot schießen *šut*
 shop Werkstatt, Verkaufsladen; Ein-
 käufe machen; ~sign Aushänge-
 schild vor einem Geschäft *šop*
 shore (Meeres-) Ufer, Strand *šor*
 short kurz; ~coming Ausfall; ~hand
 Kurzschrift; ~en verkürzen *šört-*
(hənd), *šörtən*
 shot Schuß, Schrot, Geschosse *šot*
 shoulder Schulter *šouldər*
 shout Gejauchze; ausrufen, laut
 schreien *šaut*
 shovel Schaufel, Schippe *šovəl*
 show zeigen; Aus-, Schaustellung,
 Schein *šou*
 shower Schauer *šauər*
 shrewd verschmizt, pfliffig *šrūd*
 shrill schrill *šrit*
 shrine Schrein, Altar *šraïn*
 shrink einschrumpfen; zurückschrecken
 shrove Fasten *šrov* [*šrink*]
 shrub Strauch *šrov*
 shut schließen *šut*
 Shylock *šair'lək*
 Siam *saiəm*
 sibilant Zischlaut *sib'ələnt*
 sick krank; ~bed Krankenbett; ~en
 krank sein (machen) *sik*

sickle Sichel *sikt*
 side Seite; ~board Unrichtig; ~
 ~face von der Seite; Profil;
 ~walk Bürgersteig; ~ways auf
 die Seite, seitwärts *said*
 siege Belagerung *sizdž*
 sigh Seufzer, seufzen *sai*
 sight Sicht, Anblick, Gesicht(sinn);
 ~seer (-seeing) Betrachter (Auf-
 suchen) von Sehenswürdigkeiten
sait(sir)
 sign Zeichen; unterzeichnen; ~board
 Aushängeschild vor einem Ge-
 schäftsladen *sain*
 signal Signal; ausgezeichnet, vor-
 züglich *signət*
 signature Unterschrift *sign'etšər*
 signet Siegel(ring) *signət*
 significance Bedeutung; significant
 bedeutung; signification Bedeu-
 tung; signify anzeigen, bedeuten
signi'fikəns, *signi'fikənt*, *sig-nifai*
 Silas *sair'ləs*
 silence Stillschweigen; silent schwei-
 gend, stumm *sailənt*
 Silesia Schlesien; ~n Schlesier;
 schlesisch *sair'li'sia*
 silk Seide; ~en seiden *silk(en)*
 silver Silber *silver*
 similar ähnlich *similər*
 simple einfach; simplicity Einfach-
 heit *simpl*, *simpl'i'siti*
 simultaneous gleichzeitig *simult'e'i'nəs*
 sin Sünde; sündigen *sin*
 Sinai (Berg, Arabien) *sair'nai*
 since adv. seitdem; prep. seit *sins*
 sincere aufrichtig *sinsər*
 sinecure Pfründe, Amt ohne Sorge
 und Mühe *sair'nikwər*
 sinew Sehne, Nerv *sinnu*
 sing singen *sin*
 Singapore *si'ngəpūr*
 singe fengen *sindž* [ledig *singt*]
 single einzeln, einzig, unverheiratet,
 sink Ausguß; sinken *sink*
 Sion Zion *sair'ən*
 Sioux (Indianerstamm) *sū*
 sir (G. 277) *sər*
 sire Ahnherr, Vater; Majestät *sair*
 sirloin Lendenbraten *sair'lōin*

sister Schwester *sistər*
 sit sitzen; -ting Sitzung *sit*
 site Platz, Lage *sait*
 situated gelegen, liegend; situation
 Lage, Stellung *situ'eitid, situ'e:ʃn*
 size Gestalt, Umfang, Größe, For-
 mat; cabinet- von (in) Kabinett-
 Größe (=Format) *kæ'binət saiz*
 skate Schlittschuh laufen *skēt*
 skeleton Skelett *skē'lɪtən*
 sketch Skizze; skizzieren, entwerfen
 ski Schneeschuh *ski* [sketʃ]
 skillful geschickt; skill Fertigkeit;
 skilled geschickt *skil(ful)*
 skin Haut *skin*
 skip hüpfen, (über)springen *skip*
 skirt Rock; einfassen *skərt*
 sky Himmel *skāi*
 slacken verlangsamten *slækən*
 slaughter schlachten *sləʊtər*
 slave Sklave; -ry Sklaverei *slēiv*
 slay erschlagen; -ing Ermordung *slēi*
 sleep Schlaf; schlafen; -y schlaftrig *slip*
 sleeve Ärmel *sliv*
 slight gering, schwach *slāit*
 sling schleudern, werfen *slin*
 slip schlüpfen, gleiten; schlüpfen
 lassen, verlieren; -per Pantoffel
 slot Schliß *slot* [slip, slipər]
 slow langsam leise *slōu*
 slum verrufene Winkelgasse; übel-
 berücktigte Seitenstraße *sləm*
 slumber schlummern *slomber*
 slur im Sprechen schnell zusammen-
 ziehen, verschleifen, leicht darüber
 hinweggehen *slər*
 small klein *sməl*
 smart gewandt, pfiffig *smärt*
 smash zertrümmern *smæʃ*
 smell Geruch(=sinn); riechen *smet*
 smelt schmelzen *smelt*
 smile lächeln *smāit*
 smite schlagen, treffen *smäit*
 smith Schmied *smip*
 smoke Rauch; rauchen; -er Raucher;
 -ing Rauchjäck; -less rauchlos
 Smollet *sməlt* [sməuk]
 smooth glatt, sanft; to -e glätten
smūt [natter snēk]
 snake Schlange; grass - Ringel-]

snare Schlinge, Falle *snēr*
 snow Schnee; schneien *snōu*
 Snowdon (Berg, Wales) *snōudən*
 soap Seife *sōup*
 soar sich aufschwingen *sōr*
 sober ernsthaft, nüchtern *sōubər*
 social gesellschaftlich; socialist;
 society Gesellschaft *sōušəl, sōušəlɪst,*
sə'sa:ti
 sock kurzer Strumpf *sək*
 Socrates († 399) *sə'krətiz*
 soda water Sodawasser *sōu'dəʊtər*
 soft sanft, sacht, weich; -en besänf-
 tigen *soft, sə'fən* oder *sə'fən*
 Sohrab *sōu'rəb*
 soil Grund, Boden; beschmutzen *sōil*
 soldier Soldat, Krieger *sōuldžər*
 sole einzig, allein *sōut*
 solemn feierlich; -nity Feierlichkeit
sələm, sə'lemniti [sə'li:d]
 solid fest, dicht, gediegen; fester Körper
 solitude Einsamkeit *səlɪtju:d*
 solve lösen *səlv*
 Solway Firth (England=Schottland)
 Somaliland *sə'mālɪ* *sə'li:ti fə:ʃp*
 sombre düster *səmbər*
 some einige(s); -body jemand;
 -thing etwas *səm*
 Somersetshire (englische Graffschaft)
sə'mərsətʃər
 sometimes bisweilen *sə'mtəimz*
 somewhat etwas *sə'məʊt*
 somewhere irgendwo *sə'mwɛər*
 son Sohn; -in-law Schwiegersohn
sən(inlə)
 song Gesang, Lied *səŋ*
 sonnet Sonett (14zeiliges Reimge-)
 soon bald *sūn* [dicht] *sə'net*
 soothe besänftigen *sūd*
 sordid schmutzig; -ness Schmutz,
 Gemeinheit *sɔ:rdɪd*
 sore schmerzhaft, empfindlich, wund;
 heftig, arg *sɔr*
 sorrow Kummer, Gram, Schmerz;
 sorry traurig, betrübt *sə'ro, sɔ'ri*
 sort Sorte, Art *sɔrt*
 soul Seele *sōut*
 sound gesund, tüchtig *sāund*
 sound Ton, Geräusch, Laut; er-
 tönen lassen; klingen, lauten *sāund*

sound sondieren, untersuchen, ergrün-
 soup Suppe *sap* [den *säund*]
 sour sauer *säur*
 source Quelle *sōrs*
 south Süden *säup* [*ʃæ'mptən*]
 Southampton (Hampshire) *säu-*
 southern südlich *svðrən*
 Southey (engl. Schriftsteller, † 1843)
säudə, svðə [*svðərək*]
 Southwark (jüdl. Stadtteil Londons)
 sovereign oberherrlich, Landesherr;
 ~ty Unumschränktheit *sövrin*,
 sow säen *sōu* [*sv'vrinti*]
 space Raum; spacious geräumig
spēis, spēr'sus
 Spain Spanien *spēin* [spannen *spæn*]
 span Spanne, Spannweite; (über)-
 Spaniard Spanier; Spanish spanisch
spæ'njərd, spæ'nɪʃ
 spar Sparren *spār* [*spēr*]
 spare (er)sparen, sparsam gebrauchen
 spark Funke; ~le perlen, schäumen;
 ~ling hock deutscher Schaumwein
spärk
 speak sprechen, reden; ~er Sprecher
 spear Speer *spēr* [*spik*]
 special besonder; species Art
 Gattung *spe'stəl, spī'siz*
 specimen Probe, Muster *spēc'imən*
 spectacle Schauspiel, Anblick; spec-
 tator Zuschauer; spectral geister-
 haft *spe'ktəkt, spektē'tər, spekt'rəl*
 spectroscope *spektrəskōp*
 speculative nachsinnend, überfönnlich
spe'kvlətiv
 speech Rede *spitʃ* [*spid*]
 speed Fortgang, Eile, Schnelligkeit
 spell Zauber; buchstabieren; ~ing
 Buchstabieren, Schreibweise *spet*
 spend ausgeben, zubringen *spend*
 Spenser; Spenserian *spen'sər,*
spensərjən
 sphere Kugel, Kreis *sfiər*
 spil verschütten *spit*
 spindle Spindel; spin spinnen;
 spinner Spinner; spinning-jenny
 Spinnmaschine *spindl, spinər,*
spiniŋ dze'ni
 spire Spitzsäule, dünner spitzer Kirch-
 turm *spä'rər*

spirit Geist, Mut, Spiritus; ~ual
 geistlich, geistig *spirit, spir'itwəl*
 spite Groll; in ~ of trotz *späit*
 Spithead (bei Portsmouth) *spit'həd*
 splendid glänzend; splendour Glanz
splendid, splendr
 spoil Beute; verderben *spōit*
 sponge Schwamm *spvndʒ*
 spoon Löffel *spūn*
 sport Belustigung im Freien mit
 kräftigender körperlicher Übung;
 ~ing spielend; ~sman Sportlieb-
 haber, Jäger *spōrt*
 spot Stelle; Fleck *spot*
 spread Verbreitung; verbreiten *spred*
 spring Frühling, Quelle, Ursprung;
 springen, entspringen, entstehen;
 ~up emporsprießen *spring*
 spur Sporn; (an-)spornen *spər*
 spurn verschmähen *spōrn*
 squadron Geschwader, Schwadron
skwə'drən
 square viereckig; Viereck, Quadrat;
 viereckiger Platz *skwēər*
 squash ausgepreßter Fruchtjaft;
 ausdrücken, quetschen *skwəʃ*
 squire Knappe *skwā'iər*
 stab (er)stechen *stæb*
 stable Stall; ~keeper Pferde-
 verleier *stēbt*
 staff Stab *stäf*
 stag Hirsch *stæg*
 stage Bühne, Stand, Stufe *steidʒ*
 stage-coach (Stationskutsche), Per-
 sonen-Postkutsche *steidʒ kōutʃ*
 stain Flecken; färben, beflecken *stēin*
 stair Stufe; ~s Treppe; ~case
 Treppe(nhaus) *stēər(z), stēr'keis*
 stake Spiel-(Wett-)Einsatz; auf's
 Spiel setzen *stēik*
 stalk langsam mit weiten Schritten
 ein Wild beschleichen *stōk*
 stall Sperrst; fester Stand (Bank,
 Stuhl, Tisch, Karren, Bude) mit
 Auslagevorrichtung für Verkäufer;
stōt
 stamp stampfen, mit einer Freimarke
 versehen; Briefmarke, Gepräge
stæmp
 stanch standhaft *stɔnʃ*

stand Gestell, Gerüst, Standpunkt;
stehen; ~out hervorragen; ~up
collar Stehfragen *stænd, stæ'ndəp*
kə'lə

standard Richtschnur, Normalmaß,
Eichmaß, Standarte; normal,
mustergültig *stændərd*

stanza Strophe *stænzə*

star Stern *stār*

start aufbrechen, losfahren, be-
ginnen, gründen *stɑ:t*

startle aufschrecken *stɑ:tl*

state Zustand; Staat; to lie in ~
auf dem Paradebett liegen; fest-
setzen; ~craft Staatsklugheit,
Herrscherkunst; ~sman Staats-
mann; ~ly statlich; ~ment Aus-
sage *stæt(i)*

station Stand(ort), Bahnhof; ~er
Schreibmaterialienhändler *stæ'shən(ər)*

stationary feststehend *stæ'snəri*

statue Standbild *stæ'tʃu*

stay Aufenthalt; bleiben, sich auf-
halten, wohnen *stei*

Steadman *stē'dmən*

steady stetig, beständig, gleichmäßig,
ruhig *stē'di* [*stetʃi*]

steal stehlen; ~thy verstohlen *sti:l*,

steam Dampf; ~engine Dampf-
maschine; ~er Dampfer; *stīm*

steed Streitroß *stīd* [(*endʒin*)]

steel Stahl *sti:l*

Steele *sti:l*

steep Abhang; steil; eintunken *sti:p*

steeple Kirchturm; ~chase s. S. 278

sti:p [*stīər, stīridʒ*]

steer steuern; ~age Zwischendeck

Stennes (Ordnungs-Inseln) *stē'nəs*

step Schritt; Tritt, Stufe; schreiten,
treten *step*

Stephen Stephan *sti'vən*

Stephenson (Erfinder der Lokomotive,
gest. 1848) *sti'vənsən*

sterling Sterling *stər'lɪŋ*

stern ernst, schrecklich *stər'n*

Stevenson *sti'vənsən*

steward Verwalter, Schaffner; ~ess
Aufwärterin der Damenkabine

striədəs [verbleiben an *stick*]

stick Stöck; festsetzen; ~to hangen,]

Stigand (Erzbischof von Canterbury
† um 1066) *sti'gənd*

stile Bauntritt, Stegel, Stiegfel *stai:l*

still *adj.* still, ruhig; *adv.* immer
noch; *conj.* dennoch *sti:l*

stimulate anregen *sti'mjuleit*

stipulation Vorbedingung *stipjulei'shən*

stir Bewegung, Aufregung; aufregen,
umrühren; ~up anstacheln *stār*

stock Vorrat, Inventar, Viehstand;
~rider berittener Herdenwächter;

~yard Viehhof *stɔ:k, ~rā'dər,*
~jərd

stocking langer Strumpf *stɔ:kɪŋ*

stomach Magen *stə'mək*

stone Feldstein, Stein; (engl. Gewicht,
meist=6,35 kg); stony feinig *stəʊni*

Stonehenge (Wiltshire) *stəʊ'nhendʒ*

stool Schemel *stū:l*

stoop sich beugen *stəʊp*

stop verstopfen, absperrern, anhalten;
Satzzeichen; ~page Unterbrechung

stɔ:pɪdʒ

store Vorrat, Verkaufshaus; auf-
häufen; ~-ship Proviantschiff *stɔ:r*

storey, besser: story Stockwerk;

storied stöckig *stɔ:ri*

storm Sturmwind; stürmen; ~y
stürmisch *stɔ:rm*

story Geschichte, Erzählung *stɔ:ri*

stout kräftig; starkes Porterbier *staut*

straight gerade *streit*

strain Lieb, Gesang *streɪn*

strain straff anspannen, (über)an-
strengen *streɪn*

strait Meeresstraße *streit*

strand Strand, stranden *strænd*

strange sonderbar, seltsam; ~r Frem-
der *strændʒ(ər)*

strap Riemen; ~up zuschnallen *stræp*

Stratford *stræ'tfɔ:d*

strath weites Tal in Schottland *stræp*

straw Stroh; ~berry Erdbeere *strəʊbəri*

stream Strom; strömen, dahinschießen
strīm

street Straße *stri:t* [*streŋp(ən)*]

strength Stärke; ~en verstärken

strenuous rastlos, tätig, angestrengt,
müde *stre'njuəs*

stress Druck, Nachdruck, Ton *stres*

stretch hinstrecken; sich erstrecken *stretš*
 strew (be)streuen *strū*
 strict genau, streng *strikt*
 stride der große Schritt, das Aus-
 schreiten *strād*
 strife Kampf, Streit *strāif*
 strike schlagen; auf-, festfahren, durch
 Anstreichen anzünden; striking
 auffallend *strāik(in)*
 string Schnur; bespannen *striŋ*
 strip Streifen *strip*
 stripe Streifen *strāip*
 strive streben, kämpfen *strāiv*
 stroke Streich, Strich, Schlag, Stoß
strōuk [*-hōutd*]
 strong stark; ~hold starke Feste *strōŋ*,
 structure Bau *strv'kšr*
 struggle Ringen, Kampf; kämpfen
strugt
 Strutt *strut*
 Stuart (engl. Königshaus) *stū'vrt*
 stubborn halsstarrig, ausdauernd
stoborn
 student einer der etwas studiert;
 Schüler, Student, Gelehrter *stjudənt*
 studious fleißig; study Studium;
 Studierzimmer; studieren *stūd'ivs*,
 stuff Stoff, Zeug *stuf* [*stvd*]
 stumble stolpern *stambt*
 Sturt (engl. Reisender, † 1869) *stōrt*
 style Stil, Verfahren, Weise, Ge-
 schäftsname; stylistic stilistisch
stāil, stailist'ik
 sub- Unter- *sov*
 subdue unterjochen *sovbdū*
 subject Untertan, Gegenstand; unter-
 werfen; unterwerfen (S. 281); ~ion
 Unterwerfung; ~ive Subjekts-
sovbdžəkt, t sovbdžəkt, sovbdžəksn
 subjunctive Konjunktiv *sovbdžəŋktiv*
 sublime erhaben *sublārm*
 submarine unterseeisch *sovbməri'n*
 submission Unterwürfigkeit; sub-
 mit sich unterwerfen *sovbmī'sn*,
sovmit
 subordinate, subordinative unter-
 geordnet *sovbdžə'dinət, žr'dinativ*
 sub-river unter dem Flußlauf *sovbrivər*
 subsequent nachfolgend, nachträg-
 lich *sovbs'kəŋt*

subsidy Hilfgeld *sovbs'id*
 subsist vorhanden sein *səbsi'st*
 substance wesentlicher Inhalt, Kern;
 substantial wesentlich; substan-
 tive Hauptwort *sovbstəns, sov-*
stə'nšit, sovbstəntiv
 substitute Stellvertreter, Ersatz;
 unterchieben *sovbstitjut*
 subtenant Afterlehnsmann, Unter-
 pächter *sovte'nənt*
 subterranean, subterraneous unter-
 irdisch *sovtrəri'nəns*
 subtle spitzfindig, verschlagen *svtt*
 suburb Vorstadt; ~an zur Vorstadt
 gehörig *sov'vrb, sov'vrbm*
 subvert umstürzen *sovvōrt*
 subway unterirdischer Gang *sov'būzi*
 succeed nachfolgen, Glück haben;
 success Erfolg; ~ful erfolgreich;
 succession (Nach) folge; ~ive auf-
 einanderfolgend; ~or Nachfolger
saksid, sokse's, sokse'sn, sokse'sr
 succumb unterliegen *sovkvmb*
 such solch *svtš*
 sudden plötzlich *svdn*
 Suez Canal Suez-Kanal *svūs knæ't*
 suffer erleiden, ertragen, leiden *sofr*
 suffice genügen *sofais (sofais)*; suf-
 ficient ausreichend *sofi'sənt*
 suffix Nachsilbe *sofiks*
 suffrage Abstimmung *sof'ridž*
 sugar Zucker *šugr*
 suggest anregen, eingeben; ~ive
 anregend *sovžest*
 suit Anzug; anpassen; ~able
 passend *svt(əbt)*
 suite Gefolge *svit*
 sullen düster, trüb *so'lən*
 sulphur Schwefel; ~ic schwefelig
 sultan *svltən* [*so'tfər, so'tfər'ik*]
 sultry schwül *so'ttri*
 sum Summe, Rechenexempel; to do
 ~s rechnen; ~up zusammenzählen,
 ~fassen; ~mary Zusammenfassung
sov, sov'məri
 summer Sommer *sov'mər*
 sumptuous prächtig, prachtliebend
sov'mpšvūs
 sun Sonne; ~set Sonnenuntergang;
 ~shine scheinen; ~ny sonnig *sun*

sunder zerteilen *sundər*
 superintendence Oberaufsicht *supər-
 intēndns*
 superior Oberherr; oben; ~ (to)
 höher (als); überlegen *supiˈriər*
 superordinate übergeordnet *supər-
 ɔrˈdɪnət*
 supper Abendessen *sopər*
 supplement Ergänzung, Anhang;
 ergänzen; ~ary ergänzend *sopl̩mənt*,
sopl̩məntəri
 supply Ergänzung, Zufuhr, Liefere-
 rung, Vorrat; ersetzen, ergänzen,
 ausfüllen, versorgen *soplai*
 support Unterstützung; (unter)stützen,
 unterhalten *sopɔrt*
 suppose vermuten, annehmen *sopəʊz*
 supremacy höchste Gewalt, Ober-
 gewalt; supreme oberst, höchst
supreməsi, *suprɪm*
 sure sicher *ʃʊər*
 surface Oberfläche *sərˈfəs*
 surgeon Wundarzt; surgery Chirurgie
sərdʒən, *sərdʒəri*
 surmount überwinden *sərməunt*
 surname Zuname, Familienname
 surpass übertrffen *səpās* [*sərˈneɪm*]
 surprise Überraschung; überraschen
səprəɪz [*səreɪndər*]
 surrender übergeben, ausliefern
 surround umgeben; ~ings Umgegend
səraʊnd
 survey Befichtigung, Landesver-
 messung; überblicken *sərˈveɪ*, *tə sərveɪ*
 survival Überrest; survive über-
 leben; survivor Überlebender *sər-
 vəvəl*, *sərvəvər*
 suspect verdächtigen *səspekt*
 suspend aufhängen; suspension
 Aufhebung, Ruhe; suspension-
 bridge Hängebrücke *səspeɪnsbrɪdʒ*
 Sussex (altengl. Königreich) *səks*
 sustain halten, aushalten, extragen;
 ~ a loss einen Verlust erleiden;
 ~ed getragen *səsteɪn*
 Swabia, Suabia Schwaben *sʊəˈbiə*
 swan Schwan *sʊən*
 sway Herrschaft *sʊəi*
 swear schwören, in Eid nehmen,
 vereidigen *sweər*

sweater (Schweißaufsauger,) Sport-
 Wollwams *sweɪtər*
 the Swedes die Schweden *sʊɪdz*
 sweep fegen *swi:p*
 sweet süß; ~en lieblich machen *sʊɪt*
 swell anschwellen; das Anschwellen,
 der Schwall, der Stuger *sʊet*
 swift flink *sʊɪft*
 swim schwimmen *sʊɪm*
 Swinburne (Dichter, †1909) *sʊɪˈnbɜ:n*
 swine Schwein, = *sʊəɪn*
 swing (sich) Schwingen *sʊɪŋ*
 Swiss schweizerisch *sʊɪs*
 switch Weiche, Umschalter: hin-
 und herbewegen; ~on, off auf-,
 abbrechen, ein-, ausschalten *sʊɪtʃ*
 Switzerland die Schweiz *sʊɪtˈsɜ:nlənd*
 sword Schwert *sɔ:rd*
 Sydney (Neu-Süd-Wales) *sɪˈdni*
 syllabic silbenzählend, silbisch; ~ation
 Silbentrennung; syllable Silbe
sɪləˈbɪk, *sɪˈblɪ*
 sympathy Mitgefühl, Beileid *sɪmpəˈti*
 synonym; ~ous § 128 *sɪˈnɒnɪm*,
sɪnɒˈnɪməs
 syntactical syntaktisch; syntax
 Wortfügung, Satzlehre, *sɪntækˈtɪkəl*,
sɪˈntks
 synthetic(al) synthetisch *sɪnˈtɛtɪkəl*
 system planmäßig-geordnete, folge-
 richtige Zusammenstellung *sɪstəm*

T-square Reißchiene *ti skʊər*
 tabard Heroldsrock *tæˈbɔ:d*
 table Tafel; Tisch; ~linen Tisch-
 zeug; ~service Tafelservice, =ge-
 schirr *teɪbl*, ~*lɪnən*, ~*sɜ:vɪs*
 Tacitus (römischer Geschichtsschreiber,
 † um 117) *tæˈsɪtəs*
 tail Schwanz *teɪl*
 tailor Schneider *teɪlər*
 take nehmen, aufgreifen, festnehmen;
 aufnehmen = photographieren; ~up
 wieder aufnehmen; ~to übergehen
 zu; ~an oath einen Eid ablegen *teɪk*
 tale Erzählung *teɪl*
 talent Begabung *tæˈlənt*
 talisman Zaubermittel *tæˈlɪsmən*
 talk Rede, sprechen; to have a ~
 plaudern *tɔ:k*

tall schlanke, lang, groß *tāl*
 Talmud Talmud *tæ'lməd*
 tame bändigen *tēm*
 Tamworth *tæ'mwɜ:p*
 tan Gerberlohe; gelbbraune Farbe;
 gerben; ~ner Gerber *tæn(ər)*
 tap Zapsen, Hahn; leicht berühren,
 schlagen, klopfen *tæp*
 tar Deer *tār* [*tār'nɪʃ*]
 tarnish trüben, des Glanzes berauben
 tartan buntgewürfelt *tartən*
 task Aufgabe *tāsk* [*təsmē'nɪə*]
 Tasmania (Insel südl. v. Australien)
 taste Geschmack (sinn); schmecken *tēst*
 tattler Plauderer, Schwätzer *tætlər*
 tavern Schenke, Wirtschaft *tæ'vɜ:n*
 tax Steuer; besteuern; ~ation Be-
 steuerung *tæks, tæksər'sn*
 taxi = taximeter Fahrpreisanzeiger,
 Droschke *tæks(mɪ'tər)*
 Taylor *tēlɜr*
 tea Tee *tī*
 teach lehren; ~er Lehrer, ~in *tītʃ*
 teal Krifente *tīl*
 tear zerreißen *tēər*
 tear Träne *tīər*
 technical college technische Hoch-
 schule, Technikum *te'knɪkəl kə'lɪdʒ*
 teens plur. die Jahre, deren Zahl
 mit -teen gebildet ist (13—19) *tēnz*
 teeth Zähne *tīθ*
 telegram Drahtnachricht; telegraph
 Fernschreiber; to ~ telegraphieren;
 ~ic telegraphisch; ~y Drahtnach-
 richtigung *te'lɒgrəm, te'lɒgrəf, tel-*
græ'fɪk, tele'grəfi
 Telemachus *tēlēməkəs*
 telephone Fernsprecher *te'ləfəʊn*
 tell erzählen, sagen; ~er Erzähler *təl*
 temper mäßigen; Temperament,
 Gemütsverfassung, Stimmung,
 Mischung, Beschaffenheit; ~ance
 Mäßigkeit; ~ate gemäßigt; ~ature
 Wärmezustand; ~ed gehärtet *tempər,*
tem'pərət(ʃər)
 temple Tempel *templ*
 temporal zeitlich, weltlich *tem'pərəl*
 temporary vorübergehend *tem'pɜ:rəri*
 tempt in Versuchung führen; ~ation
 Versuchung *temt(ər'sn)*

tenant Pächter, Lehnsmann *tenənt*
 tend dahin zielen; ~ency Neigung
tend, tē'nənsi
 tender zart, Zender; ~ness Zärt-
 lichkeit *tendər*
 tenfold zehnfach *tenfəʊld*
 Tennyson (engl. Dichter, † 1892)
te'nɪsən
 tense (gram.) Tempus *tens*
 tent Zelt *tent*
 term Grenze, Frist, Zeit; Terial;
 Ausdruck, Wort; ~Beziehung, Ver-
 hältnis, Bedingung, benennen, aus-
 drücken; ~ination Endung *tɜ:m*
 terminus Endbahnhof *tɜ:mɪ'nəs*
 terrace stufenförmiger Erdbauwerk,
 Erdwall *terəs*
 terrible schrecklich; terrific fürchter-
 lich *terɪbl, terɪ'fɪk*
 territory Gebiet; territorial *te'rɪtəri,*
 terror Schrecken *te'rər* [*terɪ'tɔ:riəl*]
 test Probe *test*
 testament Testament *te'stəmənt*
 testify bezeugen; to zeugen für; testi-
 mony Zeugnis *te'stɪfai, te'stɪməni*
 Teutonic germanisch *təʊtənɪk*
 Thackeray *θækərə*
 Thames Themse *temz*
 Thanet (Kent) *θæ'nət*
 thank Dank; danken; ~ful dankbar;
 ~fulness Dankbarkeit; ~less un-
 dankbar; ~sgiving (service) Dank-
 sagung (Dankgottesdienst) *θæŋk*
(þenk), þæŋksɡɪvɪŋ
 thaw tauen *θə*
 the . . . the je . . . desto *ði . . . ði*
 theatre Schauspiel(haus) *θiətər*
 thee dir, dich *ði*
 theme Thema *θi:m*
 then darauf, dann *ðen*
 thence von dort *ðens*
 Theodore *θiədɔr*
 theology Gottesgelehrtheit *θiə'lədʒi*
 theoretical theoretisch; theory auf
 wissenschaftliche Erwägungen ge-
 stützte Vermutung *θiə'retɪkəl, θiəri*
 thereby dabei *də'rbaɪ*
 therefore daher *də'rɜ:fɜr*
 therefrom daraus *də'rfrəm* [*mɜ:r*]
 thermometer Wärmemesser *θɜr'mə'tər*

thesis *plur.* theses aufgestellter

Zeitsatz, Senfung *pr'sis*, *pl.* *pr'siz*

thick dick; -et Dicksicht *pik(ət)*

thief Dieb *pif*

thigh Schenkel *pāi*

thimble Fingerhut *pimbl*

thin dünn *pīn*

thine der, die, das deinige *dain*

think denken; -er Denker *pīnk*

third Drittel *pōrd*

thirst Durst; -y durstig *pōrst(i)*

thistle Distel *pist*

thither dorthin *dīdər*

Thomas Thomas *tō'məs*

Thomson (engl. Dichter, † 1748)

thorn Dorn *pōrn* [*tomsən*]

thorough gründlich *pō'ro*

thou du *dau*

though obgleich *dou*

thought Gedanke, Denken; -ful

nachdenkend, aufmerksam *pōt*

thousand tausend *pāuzənd*

thread Faden, Zwirn *pred*

threaten drohen *pretən*

three-decker Dreidecker *pri'dekər*

threepence Dreipennestück *pripəns*

three-pounder Dreipfünder *pri-pāundər* [*pri'skōr*]

threescore *adj.* sechzig, ein Schock

threshold Schwelle *pre'səuld*

thrice dreimal *prais*

thrill durchbohren, -dringen *priit*

thrive gedeihen *priāv*

throat Kehle, Schlund *prouit*

throne Thron; -ed auf dem Throne

sitzend *proun*

throng (sich) drängen *prouŋ*

through durch; -out ganz durch *prou,*

throw Wurf; werfen *prou* [*prou-āut*]

thrust Angriff; stoßen *proust*

thumb Daumen; -tack Reißnagel

pom, -*tak*

thunder Donner; donnern *poundər*

Thuringia Thüringen *puri'ngiä*

thus so *dus*

thy dein *däi*

Tiber *täi'bər*

ticket Einlaß, Fahrchein *tikt*

tidal Gezeiten-, abhängig von der

tide (Ebbe und Flut) *täidət, täid*

tidings Kunde, Meldung *täidinz*

tidy sauber und nett; nett, sauber

machen; in Ordnung bringen *täid*

tie Band, Krawatte; binden; bow-

Schleife, Knoten *täi, bōu*

tiger Tiger *täigər*

tight straff, stramm, dicht, fest; -en

straff anziehen *täit(en)*

till bis *tit*

time Zeit; in- zur rechten Zeit,

mit der Zeit; -table Fahrplan;

-worn abgenutzt, veraltet *täimteibit*

Times (Zeitung) gilt als *sing.* *täimz*

tin Zinn, Blechbüchse; -smith Zinn-

gießer, Klempner, *tin, ti'nsmiš*

tine entzünden *täin*

tint Farberton *tint*

tiny winzig *täini*

tip Spitze; Trinkgeld *tip*

tipsy angeheitert *tipsi* [*täi'ord*]

tire ermüden, anstrengen; -d müde

title Titel, Anspruch, Recht *täit*

to and fro hin und her *tu ən frōu*

toast geröstete Brotschnitte *tōust*

tobacco Tabak; -nist Zigarren-}

Tobias *tōbi'əs* [verkäufer *tōbəkō*]

toe Zehe *tōu*

together zusammen *togedər*

toil schwere Arbeit; sich placken;

-some mühsam *tōit(som)*

tolerable erträglich; toleration

Duldung *tōləbrəit, tōləbrē'shən*

tomato Tomate *tōmāto*

tomb Grab *tūm*

ton Tonne (als Gewicht = 20 cwts

= 1016,0475 kg) *tōn*

to-night heute abend *tō nait*

tone Ton, Klang *tōun*

tongs *plur.* Zange *tonz*

tongue Zunge, Sprache *tōŋ*

too allzu; auch *tā*

tool Werkzeug *tūt*

tooth Zahn; -ache Zahnschmerz;

-brush Zahnbürste *tūš, -ēik, -brōš*

top Gipfel, oberer Rand; -hat hoher

Hut *tōp*

topic Thema, Gegenstand *tō'pik*

torch Fackel *tōrtš*

the Tories (ehemalige polit. Partei

in England, S. 111, Fußn.) *tōri:z*

Toronto (Canada) *tor'nto* [*torp'i'do*]
 torpedo (ursprünglich: 'Zitteraal')
 Torquay (Devonshire) *tor'kē*
 torrent Gießbach *tor'nt*
 torrid dörrend, heiß *tor'rid*
 torture foltern, martern; Folter,
 Dual *tort'sor*
 toss emporwerfen *tos*
 total gesamt, völlig; Gesamtzahl,
 Summe *tōut*
 touch Gefühl (sinn), Berührung; be-
 rühren, flüchtig im Vorbeifahren
 besuchen; -ing rührend *tot's*
 tough zähe, hart *tof*
 tour Vergnügungsreise, Ausflug;
 -ist Vergnügungsreisender *tūr*
 tournament Turnier *tūrn'ment*
 tow an der Leine ziehen, ins Schlepp-
 tau nehmen; -path Treidelfsteig *tōu*
 towards gegen *tōw'ardz*
 towel Handtuch *tāw'əl*
 tower Turm *tāw'ər*
 town Stadt; -hall Rathaus *tāun*
 toy Spielzeug *tōi*
 trace Spur; aufspüren; (-a line)
 ziehen, zeichnen, abstecken, pausent^{re's}
 track Fährte, Strecke, Bahn, Geleise
træk [*trækt*]
 tract Straße, Abhandlung, Traktat
 traction Zugkraft *træ'k'sh*
 trade Handel, Gewerbe; to ~
 (in) handeln (mit); tradesman
 Handelsmann; plur. tradesmen
 oder tradespeople *trē'd*, *trē'dzmen*
 tradition mündliche Überlieferung;
 -al überliefert, überkommen *træ-
 di'sh*, *trē'di'shnl*
 Trafalgar (Andalusien) *træ'fælgər*
 traffic Großhandel, Verkehr; Handel
 treiben; trafficker Handelsmann
træ'fik
 tragedy Trauerspiel; tragic, tragical
 erschütternd *træ'dz'di*, *træ'dz'ik*
 train Zug, Gefolge, Eisenbahnzug;
 erziehen, ausbilden; -ing Aus-
 bildung *trē'm*
 traitor Verräter *trē'tor*
 tram = tramway
 trammel langes Schleppzeug beim
 Fischen, Jassel, Hemmschuh *træ'məl*

tramp Getrappel *træmp*
 trample trampeln, treten *træmpt*
 tramway Trambahn *træ'mweɪ*
 tranquil ruhig *træ'nkwəl*
 transcend übertreffen; -ental über-
 sinnlich; -entalism transzenden-
 tale Philosophie *træns'end*, *træns-
 de'ntəl* [*kri:p'sh*]
 transcription Ab-, Umschrift *træns-
 scription*
 transfer Übertragung; -ticket Um-
 steigezettel *trænsfər*; übertragen to
trænsfər
 transform umwandeln; -ation Um-
 wandlung *trænsfōrim*, *træns-
 fōrmē'sh*
 transition Übergang; transitive
trænzi'sh, *træ'nsitiv*
 translate übersetzen; translation
 Übersetzung *trænsleɪt*, *træ'sh*
 transmission Übermittlung; trans-
 mit übersenden *trænsmi'sh*
 transoceanic überseeisch *træns'ou'siæ-
 n'ik*
 transport Fortschaffung; Beförde-
 rung; hin-, fortschaffen *træns'pōrt*
 the Transvaal Transvaal *trænsvāl*
 trash Abfall, Plunder, albernes Zeug
træʃ [*træ'vəl*, *træ'vələr*]
 travel Reise; reisen; -er Reisender
 traverse durchschreiten *træ'vərs*
 travesty scherzhafte (ins lächerliche
 gezogene) Umgestaltung (eines Ge-
 dichtes) *træ'visti*
 tread treten, Tritt *tred*
 treason Verrat
 treasure Schatz; aufbewahren *tre'žər*
 treat Schmaus, Extravergnügen;
 (be)handeln; -ise, -ment Ab-
 handlung; -y Vertrag; treaty-
 port Vertragshafen *trēt*, *trētis*,
 tree Baum *tri* [*trī'tmēt*, *trī'tipōrt*]
 tremble zittern *trembl*
 tremendous furchtbar *træ'mendəs*
 trespass Überschreitung, Vergehen;
 überschreiten, sich vergehen *tresps*
 trial Versuch, Prüfung, Verhör *trā'əl*
 triangle Dreieck *trā'əngl*
 tribe Volksstamm *trīb*
 tribute Tribut; tributary Neben-
 fluß *trī'būt*(*ər*)

trick Streich, Kniff, Kunstgriff *trik*
 trim in schmucker Ordnung, in guter
 Bereitschaft; schmuck auspuhen und
 fein zurecht machen *trim*
 trinity Dreieinigkeit *tri'ni'ti*
 trio Trio *tri'o*
 trip Ausflug Sprizfahrt *trip*
 triple dreifach; -t Trio, Dreireim *tript*
 trisyllabic dreisilbig *trisilæ'bi:k*
 triumph Triumph, triumphieren;
 -al Triumph-; -ant triumphierend
trā'vntf; trā'v'mfəl, -v'mfənt
 trochaic trochäisch; trochee Trochäus
trō'kæ'ik, trō'ki
 trodden getreten (to tread)
 troll freisen *trō'lt*
 troop Truppe *trūp*
 trope bildlicher Ausdruck *trō'p*
 tropic Wendekreis; the -s die
 Tropen *trō'pik*
 trouble Mühe, Sorge, Unruhe,
 Störung; stören, belästigen; -some
 beschwerlich, lästig, unangenehm
 trousers Hosen *trā'uzəz* [*trə'bz*]
 trout Forelle, -en *trə'ut*
 Troy Troja *trō'i* [haftig *trā'(l)i*]
 true wahr, treu; truly *adv.* wahr-
 trumpet Trompete, Hörrohr; speak-
 ing- Sprachrohr *trəm'pɪt*
 trunk (Baum-)Stamm; Rumpf;
 Reisefoffer *trɒŋk*
 trust Vertrauen; in trust in Ver-
 wahr; zuversichtlich hoffen, ver-
 truth Wahrheit *trʌθ* [trauen *trʌst*]
 try versuchen, erproben, verhören;
 -ing auf die Probe stellend, ge-
 fährlich, peinlich *trai*
 tsar § 15 Zar *tsɑr*
 tub Zuber, Faß, Wanne(nbad) *tʌb*
 tube Röhre, Rohr; -ing Röhren-
 anlage *tʌb*
 Tudor (engl. Königsfamilie) *tʊ'də*
 tumbler Trinkglas (ohne Fuß) *tʌmblə*
 tuneful wohlklingend; tuneless
 mißtönend *tʌnfʊl* [*tʌnəl*]
 tunnel Stollen, unterirdischer Gang
 turf Rasen *tɜ:f*
 turkey Puter, Truthahn *tɜ:k*
 Turkey die Türkei; Turkish türkiſch
tɜ:k

turn Turnus, Wendung, Reihenfolge;
 by turns abwechselnd; to -drehen,
 (sich) wenden, werden; -down
 collar Umlegefragen; -on auf-
 drehen; -out (off) ausdrehen;
 -out hinausstreiben, verjagen *tɜ:n*
 turtle Turteltaube; Schildkröte *tɜ:tl*
 tusk Fangzahn, Hauer *tu:sk*
 tutor Studienlehrer; -ed beaufsichtigt
tʊ'tɔ:d
 Tweed (Fluß, Engl.=Schottl.); -side
 die Ufer des Tweed *tʊ:ɪd*
 twice zweimal; -running zweimal
 hintereinander *tʊ:ɪs*
 Twickenham *tʊ'kɪnəm*
 twinkle blinzeln, funkeln *tʊ'ɪŋkl*
 twine gedrehter Faden, Bindfaden;
 zusammendrehen, umschlingen, win-
 den *tʊ:ɪn*
 twitter Gezwitzcher *tʊ'ɪtə*
 twofold zweifach *tʊ'fəʊld*
 Tyndale *tɪndəl*
 Tyndall *tɪndəl*
 Tyne (Fluß, Northumberland) *tɑ:n*
 type Typus, Type; in- gesetzt;
 typical typisch; -writer Schreib-
 maschine, Maschinenschreiber(in)
tə'p(r)ə'tɪr, tɪ'pɪkəl
 tyrannize grausam, herrschen, ge-
 walttätig behandeln; tyranny
 Tyrannei; tyrant Tyrann *tɪ'rənə'z,*
tɪ'rəni, tɪ'rənt
 tyre Gummireifen am Fahrrad *tɑ:'ə*
 Tyrolese Tyroler *tɪ'rəlɪz*
 Ugly häßlich; ugliness Häßlichkeit;
ʊ'gli(əs)
 Ulster (Provinz Irlands) *ʊl'stə*
 ultimately schließlich *ʊltɪ'mə'tli*
 Ulysses Odysseus *jʊlɪ'sɪz*
 umbrella Regenschirm; -stand
 Schirmständer *ʊmbrelə'stænd*
 unable unfähig *ʊnə'bəl*
 unaccented unbetont *ʊnək'sentɪd*
 unaltered unverändert *ʊnə'tɜ:d*
 unamenable unzugänglich *ʊnə'mɪ'nəbəl*
 unanimous einmütig *jʊnək'ni:məs*
 unassailable unangreifbar *ʊnəsɪ'ləbəl*
 unattempted unversucht *ʊnə'temptɪd*
 unbecoming ungeziemend *ʊnbək'vɪnɪŋ*

unbelief Unglaube; unbeliever Un-
gläubiger *unbɛˈlɪf*, *unbɛˈlɪvər*
unburied unbefattat *unbɛˈrɪd*
unburnished unpoliert *unbɔːˈnɪʃt*
unceasing unaufhörlich *unsɪˈsɪŋ*
uncertainty Ungewißheit *unsɜːˈrɪntɪ*
uncle Oheim *ʊŋkl*
unconfined endlos *unkɒnˈfaɪnd*
uncultivated unangebaut *unkʊlˈtɪ-
vɪtɪd* [*ʊndɜːɡəʊ*]
undergo sich unterziehen, erleiden
undergraduate Student, der noch
keinen akademischen Grad erlangt
hat *ʊndɜːɡræˈdʒuət* [*ɡrænd*]
underground unterirdisch *ʊndɜː-
ɡraʊnd*
underline unterstreichen *ʊndəˈlaɪn*
underogating sich nichts in seiner
Würde vergebend *ʊndəˈrɔːɡeɪtɪŋ*
understand verstehen; hinzudenken
(ergänzen); -ing Verständnis
ʊndəˈstænd [*ʊndəˈstreɪtəm*]
understratum die untere Schicht
undertake unternehmen, übernehmen,
auf sich nehmen; -taking Unter-
nehmen *ʊndərˈteɪk*
undervalue unterschätzen *ʊndəˈvɛːlʊ*
undiminished unvermindert *ʊndɪˈmɪ-
nɪʃt*
undisputed unbestritten *ʊndɪsˈpjuːtɪd*
undoubted unzweifelhaft *ʊndəʊˈtɪd*
undress (sich) ausziehen *ʊndreːs*
undubitable unzweifelhaft *ʊndʊˈ-
bɪtəbl* [*dʊbɪˈʃn*]
undulation Wellenbewegung *ʊn-
dʊlɪ*
unduly adv. ungebührlich *ʊndʊˈli*
uneasy unbehaglich *ʊniːsɪ*
unemployed unbeschäftigt *ʊˈnɪmˌplɪd*
unenduring nicht dauernd, vergäng-
lich *ʊˈnɛndʊˈrɪŋ*
unequal ungleich *ʊniːˈkʊəl*
unexpected unerwartet *ʊnɪkspeˈktɪd*
unfilial unfilial *ʊnfɪˈliəl* [*ʊnˈfleːdʒd*]
unfledged noch nicht flügge, unreif
unfold entfalten *ʊnsəʊld*
unfortunate unglücklich *ʊnsɜːˈtʃʊnət*
unfrequent selten *ʊnfriˈkʊənt*
unequal ungleich *ʊniːˈkʊəl*
unhappy unglücklich *ʊnhæˈpi*
unheard-of unerhört, noch nicht da-
gewesen *ʊnhɜːdɒv*

unheedful unachtsam *ʊnhɪˈdʃʊl*
unhesitating unbedenklich, ohne
Zagen *ʊnhɛˈzɪtɪtɪŋ*
unhonored unentehrt *ʊnɒˈnɔːd*
uniform gleichförmig, Uniform *jʊˈni-
fɔːrm* [Stimmung *jʊˈnɪfɔːrˈmɪti*]
uniformity Einformigkeit, Überein-
stimmung *jʊˈnɪfɔːrˈmɪti*
uninterrupted ununterbrochen *ʊn-
ɪntəˈrʌptɪd*
union Vereinigung, Verein *jʊˈnɪən*
unit Einheit; monetary ~ Münz-
einheit *jʊˈnɪt*, *mɒˈnetri* ~
unite vereinigen *jʊˈnaɪt*
universal allgemein, universal, Welt;
universe Weltall; university
Universität *jʊˈnɪvɜːˈsɪtɪ*, *jʊˈnɪvɜːs,*
~vɜːˈsɪtɪ
unkind unfreundlich *ʊnkɑːˈnd*
unknown unbekannt *ʊˈnɒʊn* [*ʊnleːs*]
unless wofern nicht; es sei denn, daß
unlikeness Unähnlichkeit *ʊnlɑːˈknəs*
unmarried unvermählt *ʊnmæˈrɪd*
unnecessary überflüssig *ʊnnɛˈsɪsəri*
unnumbered ungezählt *ʊnnʌˈmbɜːd*
unpack auspacken *ʊnpæk*
unpractical unausführbar *ʊnpɹæˈk-
tɪkəl*
unrepaid unfrankiert *ʊnpriˈpeɪd*
unprepared unvorbereitet *ʊnpriˈpeəd*
unreal irreal *ʊnriːəl*
unrimed reimlos *ʊnraɪˈmɪd*
unrivalled unerreicht *ʊnrɑːˈvɪd*
unscrew abschrauben *ʊnskruː*
unseen ungesehen *ʊnsɪn*
unselfish selbstlos; -ness Selbst-
losigkeit *ʊnsɛˈltʃɪs*
unsettled unsicher, unbeständig
unstressed unbetont *ʊnstreːst*
unsung nicht besungen *ʊnsʊŋ*
unsurpassed unübertroffen *ʊnsɜːˈpɑːst*
until bis *ʊntɪl*
untimely vor der Zeit *ʊntɑːˈmli*
untiring unermüdlich *ʊntɑːˈrɪŋ*
unto = to *ʊntə*
untravelled nicht befahren *ʊntræˈvɪd*
unusual ungewöhnlich *ʊnʃʊˈzʊəl*
unwashed ungewaschen *ʊnʃɔːst*
unwearying nicht ermüdend *ʊnɜːˈrɪŋ*
unwept unbewein *ʊnˈwept*
unwilling nicht willens *ʊnˈwɪlɪŋ*

unwithstood widerstandslös *v'n-*
 up to bis zu *up tu* [*ʊdʃtʊd*]
 uphold emporhalten, Gewicht legen
 upon auf *ʊpən* [*auf ʊphəʊld*]
 upper höher *ʊpər* [*ʊpərdz*]
 upwards aufwärts; ~of mehr als
 urban *ɜrbən*; urbane *ɜrbən* (S. 281)
 urn Urne *ɜrn*
 usage Gebrauch, Herkommen *jə zɪdʒ*
 use Gebrauch, Nutzen, Benutzung;
 gebrauchen; ~ful nützlich; ~fulness
 Nutzbarkeit; ~less nutzlos; usual
 gebräuchlich, gewöhnlich *jʊs, tʃʊz,*
jʊsfʊt, jʊzʊt [*jʊzɜrˈpər*]
 usurper Usurpator, Thronräuber
 usurp an sich reißen *jʊzɜrp*
 utensil Gerät, Geschirr *juteˈnsɪl*
 utilitarian auf den Nutzen gerichtet;
 ~ism Utilitarismus *jʊtɪlɪtɪˈriən*
 utmost äußerst, höchst *ʊtməʊst*
 Utopia, utopian *jʊtəˈpiːə, jʊtəˈpiən*
 utter äußerst, gänzlich; to ~ äußern,
 aussprechen; ~ance Ausdruck, Aus-
 sprache, Vortrag *ʊtər*
 uvula Zäpfchen *jəˈvʊlə*

vacant leer, erledigt *vɛˈkənt*
vacation Ferien *vækəˈʃn*
Vaillima *vɛˈlɪmə*
vain eitel, nichtig; in ~ vergeblich;
 take in ~ unnütz in den Mund
 nehmen, unnützlich führen *vɛɪn*
vale, valley Tal *vɛɪt, vɛl*
valid gültig *væˈlɪd*
valley Tal *væl*
valour Tüchtigkeit, Tapferkeit; valu-
 able wertvoll; value Wert *væˈlɜː,*
van Packwagen *væn* [*væˈtʃəbəl, væˈljʊ*]
Vancouver (Brit. Kolumbia) *vən-*
vane Wetterfahne *vɛɪn* [*kūˈvər*]
vanity Eitelkeit *væˈnɪtɪ*
vanquish besiegen *væˈŋkwɪʃ*
variety Mannigfaltigkeit, Abart;
 variation Veränderung; variable
 wechselnd; various mannigfaltig;
 to vary verschieden sein, wechseln
vərɪˈtɪ, vərɪˈʃn, vɛˈrɪəbəl, vɛˈrɪəs, vɛˈrɪ
vassal Vasall *væsəl*
Vaughan *vɔn*
vault Gemölbe, Gruft *vɔlt*

vast ungeheuer, weit, groß *vəst*
 veal Kalbfleisch *vɪl* [*dʒɛləbəl*]
 vegetable Gemüse, Pflanzen; *veː*;
 vehicle Fahrzeug *vɪˈkɪl*
 veil Schleier; verschleiern *vɛɪl*
 venerable ehrwürdig; venerate
 hoch verehren *veˈnərəbəl, veˈnərəɪt*
 Venetian venetianisch *venɪˈʃn*
 vengeance Rache *veˈndʒəns*
 Venice Venedig *veˈnɪs*
 ventilator Ventilator, Luftflappe
veˈntɪlətər [*wagħalsɪg veˈnɪʃər*]
 venture (sich) wagen; venturous
 verb Zeitwort *vɜrb*
 verdict Urteil *vɜˈdɪkt*
 verdure (das) Grün; verdurous
 grün *vɜˈdʒər, vɜˈdʒərəs*
 verse Vers, Dichtung; versification
 Verskunst *vɜːs, vɜːsɪfɪkəˈʃn*
 versed bewandert *vɜːst*
 version Wendung, Fassung, Über-
 tragung *vɜːʃn*
 very adj. (wahr), ebenderjelbe *veːri*
 vessel Gefäß, Schiff *veːsəl*
 vest Unterjacke *vest*
 vesture Gewand, Hülle *veːstʃər*
 veterinary tierärztlich *vetˈɪnəri*
 vex plagen, beunruhigen *veks*
 via via, auf dem Wege über *vɪˈə*
 viaduct Talüberbrückung, Straßen-
 überführung *vɪˈædəkt*
 vicar Pfarrer *vɪˈkər* [*vɪˈʃəs*]
 vice Laster, vicious lasterhaft *vɪs,*
 vice- Vize- (an Stelle von) *vɪs*
 viceroy Vizekönig *vɪˈsərɔɪ*
 victor Sieger; Victoria (austral.
 Staat); victorious siegreich; vic-
 tory Sieg *vɪˈktr, vɪktɔˈriə, vɪktɔˈrɪəs,*
 vie wetteifern *vɪˈ* [*vɪˈktrɪ*]
 Vienna Wien; Viennese wienerisch
vɪˈnə, vɪnɪˈz
 view Sicht, Ansicht, Ausficht, Obacht,
 Absicht; besehen, betrachten, prüfen *vju*
 vigour Kraft, Nachdruck; vigorous
 vile niedrig, gemein *vɪl* [*kräftig vɪgər*]
 villa Landhaus *vɪlə*
 village Dorf *vɪˈlɪdʒ*
 vindicate rechtfertigen, verteidigen
vɪˈndɪkət [*berg*] *vɪn, (vɪnɪˈd)*
 vine Weinstock, Rebe; (~yard Wein-)

vinegar Essig *vi nɛgər*
 vintage Weinlese *vɪˈntɪdʒ*
 violent heftig *vaiˈələnt*
 violet veilschenfarben *vaiˈələt*
 Virgil (Vergil, † 19 v. Chr.) *vɜːrdʒɪl*
 Virginia *vɜːrdʒɪniə* [*vɜːrtʃu, vɜːrtʃʊns*]
 virtue Tugend; virtuoso tugendhaft)
 virtuoso Virtuoso *vɜːtʃuˈso*
 viscount Vicomte, Vizegrav *vaiˈkaʊnt*
 visible sichtbar *visəbəl*
 visit Besuch; besuchen; -ing-card
 Besuchskarte; -or Besucher *vizɪt(ər)*
 vivid lebhaft, lebendig *viˈvɪd*
 Vocabulary kurzgefaßte Wortliste
vɒkəˈbuləri
 vocal tönend, in Worten *vəʊkəl*
 vocalic vokalisches *vɒkəˈlɪk*
 viz = videlicet = namely
 voice Stimme; -d stimmhaft; -less
 stimmlos *vɔɪs*
 volcano Vulkan *vɒlkeɪˈno*
 volley Salve; Salven abgeben,)
 volume Band *vɒləˈvjuːm* [feuern *vɒləs*]
 volunteer Freiwilliger; sich frei-
 willig anbieten *vɒləntiˈər*
 voluptuous üppig *vɒləˈpʃʊəs*
 Vortigern (altbrit. König) *vɔːtɪgərən*
 Vosges Wasgau *vɒʒ*
 vow Gelübde, Schwur *vəʊ*
 vowel Vokal *vəʊəl*
 voyage Meerfahrt, Seereise *vɔɪˈeɪʒ*
 vulgar gewöhnlich *vʊˈlɡər*
 vulture Geier *vʊˈltʃər*

Wadsworth *ˈwɒdswɜːθ*
 wager Wette *ˈweɪdʒər*
 wagon = railway-carriage schwerer
 Lastwaggon, Güterwagen *ˈæɡən*
 wages Lohn *ˈweɪdʒɪz*
 wail wehklagen, beklagen *weɪl*
 wait (for) warten (auf) *weɪt*
 waistcoat Weste *ˈweɪskəʊt*
 Wakefield (S. 162) *ˈweɪkfiɪld*
 wake wecken; Wache (der Wächter:
 Hereward the Wake der Wachsame
 S. 168); -ful wachend; -n wachen;
 -up aufwachen *ˈweɪk(ful), ˈweɪkn*
 walk Fußweg, Spaziergang; (zu Fuß)
 gehen, im Schritte gehen (lassen);
 side- Bürgersteig *weɪk*

wall Mauer *wɔːl*
 Walter Walter *ˈwɔːltər*
 wander wandern *ˈwɔːndər*
 wane schwinden; Abnehmen des
 Mondes *weɪn*
 want Wunsch, Bedürfnis, Mangel;
 wünschen, brauchen *wɒnt* [*ˈwɒpən*]
 Wapping (östl. Stadtteil Londons))
 war Krieg; kämpfen; -fare Kriegs-
 dienst, Streit; -like kriegerisch;
 -rior Kriegermann *wɔːr, -fɛər, -lɪk,*
ˈwɔːrɪər [Speicher *ˈweɪərˈhaʊs*]
 ware Ware, Geschirr; -house)
 warm warm; wärmen, heizen; -th
 Wärme *wɔːrm(θ)*
 warn warnen, warnend benach-
 richtigen; -ing Warnung *wɔːrn*
 Warren *ˈwɔːrən*
 Warwick (Warwickshire) *ˈwɔːrɪk*
 wash waschen *wɔːʃ*
 Washington (Vorname) *ˈwɔːʃɪŋtən*
 waste unnütz, müßig, öde; to lay ~
 verwüsten; to ~ vergeuden; Ver-
 geudung; -paper-box Papier-
 kasten *weɪst (ˈpeɪpər-bɒks)*
 watch Taschenuhr; bewachen, beob-
 achten; -dog Wächterhund; -ful
 wachsam; -word Lösungswort *wɔːtʃ*
 water Wasser; bewässern, besprengen,
 wässern, tränen; -ing place Bade-
 ort; -mark Wasserstandslinie,
 Fluthöhe; -proof wasserdicht(er
 Überzieher) *ˈwɔːtər*
 Watling Street (röm. Heerstraße von
 Richborough in Kent über London
 bis zur Insel Anglesey) *ˈwɔːtlɪŋ striːt*
 Watson *ˈwɔːtsən*
 Watt *wɔːt*
 wave Woge; schwenken, wedeln mit;
 wallen, flattern *weɪv*
 Waverly (schottischer Familienname))
 wax Wachs *wæks* [*ˈweɪvərlɪs*]
 way Weg, Art und Weise; by ~ of
 über *weɪ*
 weak schwach; -en schwächen *weɪk,*
ˈweɪkn [wohlhabend *ˈweɪk(ə)*]
 wealth Wohlstand, Reichtum; -y)
 weapon Waffe *ˈweəpən*
 wear tragen, abnutzen; -out ab-
 nutzen *weə*

weary müde; ermüden *üri*
 weather Wetter *üedər*
 weave weben; ~r Weber *üw(ər)*
 wed heiraten; ~ding Hochzeit *üed*
 wee winzig *ü*
 weed Unkraut; jäten *ütd*
 week Woche *ütk*
 ween wännen, glauben *ün*
 weep weinen *üip*
 weigh wiegen; ~t Gewicht *üē(t)*
 weird übernatürlich, schaurig *üi'əd*
 welcome Bewillkommnung; will-
 kommen; bewillkommen *üet'kom*
 welfare Wohlfart *üet'fēr*
 well Quelle, Brunnen *üet*
 well gut, wohl *uel*
 Wells (geb. 1866) *üetz*
 Welsh wallisch; the ~ man der
 Walliser *üet's*
 Wemyss (Schottland) *üimz*
 wend sich wenden, gehen *üend*
 Wessex (altengl. Königreich) *üe'seks*
 west *adj.* und *adv.* westlich; Westen;
 ~erly *adj.* westlich; *adv.* westwärts;
 ~ern westlich *üest*, *üestərle*, *üe'stern*
 Westminster (Stadtteil Londons)
üe'stminstər [*üe'st'mərland*]
 Westmoreland (engl. Grafschaft)
 wet feucht, naß *üet*
 wharf Werft *hüərf*
 whate'er = whatever welch (wer,
 was) auch immer *üote'vər*
 wheat Weizen *hüüt* [*hüütstən*]
 Wheatstone (engl. Physiker, † 1875)
 wheelRad; two-wheeled zweirädrig;
 to wheel a cycle ein Rad führen *hüüt*
 whence von wo *hüens*
 whenever wenn auch immer *hüene'vər*
 where, wo, wohin *hüēr*
 whereas wohingegen, sintermal *hüērə'z*
 wherefore warum *hüēr'fər*
 wherein worin *hüēri'n* [*e'vər*]
 wheresoever wo auch immer *hüērso'*
 wherethrough wodurch *hüēr'pru*
 whereupon worauf *hüēr'və'n*
 wherever wo auch immer *hüēre'vər*
 whet wehen, schärfen *hüet*
 whether ob *hüēdər* [immer *hüit'se'vər*]
 whichever welch (wer, was) auch
 whig Whig (S. 111, Fußn.) *hüig*

while Zeit, Weile; while, whilst
conj. während *hüāt(st)*
 whim Grille, Einfall *hüim*
 whine greinen, wimmern *hüāin*
 whisper flüstern *hüispər*
 white weiß *hüāt*
 Whitehall Straße in London *üāt hōt*
 whither wohin *hüidər*
 Whit Sunday Pfingstsonntag; Whit-
 suntide Pfingsten *hüit*, *hüit'suntaid*
 whoever wer auch immer *hüe'vər*
 whole ganz; Ganzes; ~sale Groß-
 handel *hōut (seiz)* *sum*
 wholesome gesundheitsfördernd *hōut-*
 wholly *adv.* ganz *hōut-li* § 95 A. 1
 whoso = whoever, whosoever
 why warum; ja aber, wahrhaftig *hüāi*
 wicked böswillig; ~ness Bosheit *üik'id*
 wide breit, weit; to ~n (sich) er-
 weitern *üāid*, *üāiden*
 widow Witwe *üi'do*
 wield handhaben, schwingen *üi'td*
 wife Gattin *üāif*
 wild wild; ~erness Wildnis *üāitd*,
 Wilkie *üitki* [*üi'td'rnəs*]
 William Wilhelm *üi'ləm*
 will Wille, Testament; ~ing willens
 willow Weide *üi'lo* [*üit*, *üi'liŋ*]
 Wiltshire (engl. Grafschaft) *üitt'sər*
 win gewinnen *ün*
 Winchester (Hampshire) *üint'sestər*
 wind Wind *ünd* (im Reim *üāind*)
 wind winden; ~up aufziehen *üāind'vəp*
 window Fenster; ~ed-niche Fenster-
 nische, ~vertiefung *ündo*, *üi'ndəud*
 Windsor (Berks) *üi'nzər* [*nits*]
 windy eitel, windig *ündi*
 wine Wein *üāin*
 Winfrith Winfried *üinfriþ*
 wing Flügel; ~ed beflügelt *ün*
 winter Winter; wintry winterlich
üintər, *üintrī* [*üāip*]
 wipe wischen, abtrocknen; ~r Wischer
 Winnepeg (Canada) *üi'nəpəg*
 wire Draht; ~less drahtlos *üāi'ər*
 wise Art und Weise *üāiz*
 wise weise; wisdom Weisheit *üāiz*,
üi'zəm [sehnen nach *üis*]
 wish Wunsch; wünschen, ~for sich
 wit Witz, ~blatt, ~ling; ~ty witzig *üit*

witan (altengl.) die Weisen *witan*
 witch Hexe *wits*
 with mit *wit*
 withdraw zurücknehmen, (sich) zurück-
 ziehen *widdrō*
 wither verwelken *widr*
 within innerhalb *widin*
 withhold zurückhalten *widhōwld*
 without außerhalb, ohne *widaut*
 withstand widerstehen *widstænd*
 witness Zeugnis, Zeuge; Zeuge sein
 von, mit ansehen; to bear- Zeug-
 nis ablegen *witnes*
 Wiveliscombe (Somersetshire) *wi'ltz-*
 woe Weh *wōu* [*kūm*]
 wolf Wolf *wulf*
 Wolsey *wiltzi* [*wimən*]
 woman Frau *wumən*, plur. women
 wonder Wunder, Staunen; sich
 wundern; neugierig sein; -ful
 wunderbar; wondrous wunderbar,
 außerordentlich *wundr*
 wont gewohnt *wont*
 wood Holz, Gehölz, Wald; -en
 hölzern; -y waldig *wud(m)*
 wool Wolle; -len wollen; -lens
 plur. Wollenzeuge *wul, wulən*
 Woolwich (Vorstadt Londons, Kent)
wu'litʃ, wu'tidʒ
 Worcester (Worcestershire) *wustər*
 word Wort *wōrd*
 Wordsworth *wōrdzswɜp*
 work Arbeit; arbeiten, wirken; in
 Tätigkeit, Betrieb setzen; -man
 Arbeiter *wɜrk*
 world Welt; -wide über die ganze
 Welt reichend *wɜrld* (-*wāld*)
 worm Wurm *wɜrm*
 worn abgenutzt *wɔrn*
 worry (sich ab)quälen, sich abhärmen
 worse schlimmer *wɜrs* [*wɜ'ri*]
 worship anbeten, Anbetung *wɜrʃɪp*
 worst (der) schlimmste *wɜrst*
 worth Wert, wert; -less ungenügend;
 -y würdig *wɜrθ, wɜrði*
 wound Wunde; verwunden *wəʊnd*
 wrap einhüllen *ræp*
 wrath Zorn *rɔθ*
 wreath Kranz; to -e befränzen,
 flechten, sich kräuseln *rɪθ, tɪ rɪθ*

wreck Brack, Vermüstung, stranden
 wrest from entreißen *rest* [*rek*]
 wrestle Ringkampf; ringen *rest*
 wretch unglücklich, heimatlos;
 wretched erbärmlich *retʃɪd*
 wrist Handgelenk *rist*
 writ altes Gpf. und Part. zu write
 write schreiben; writing Schriftwerk;
 writer Schriftsteller *raɪt, raɪtɪŋ*
 wrong adj. unrecht; to - fränken *rɒŋ*
 wrought gearbeitet; -iron Schmiede-
 eisen *rɔɪt* [*wi'kleɪt*]
 Wyclif (engl. Reformator, † 1384)

yacht Yacht *jɔt*
 Yankee Neu-Engländer *jæ'ŋki*
 yard Yard, Elle; Hof *jɑrd*
 yarn Garn *jɑrn*
 yea ja *jɪ*
 year Jahr *jɪər*
 yearn sich sehnen *jɜrn*
 yeast Gāst, Gese *jɪst*
 yell gellendes Geschrei *jet*
 yellow gelb *je'lə*
 yes ja *jes*
 yesterday gestern *jestədeɪ*
 yet nunmehr, noch; bis jetzt *jet*
 yew Eibenbaum *jū*
 yield einbringen, gewähren; nach-,
 yoke Joch *jɔʊk* [*hergeben jɪt*]
 of yore vor alters, ehemals *jɔr*
 York (Yorkshire) *jɔrk*
 New York Neuyork *nju jɔrk*
 Yorkshire (engl. Grafschaft) *jɔrkʃɪr*
 Yosemite Valley Yosemite = Tal
 (Kalifornien) *jə'semɪti væl*
 young jung *jʊŋ*
 youth Jugend, Jüngling; -ful
 jugendlich *jʊθ(fʊl)*

Zanzibar Sansibar *zanzibār* [*zɪ'li*]
 zeal Eifer, -ous, -y eifrig *zeɪl, ze'ləs,*
 New Zealand Neu-Seeland *nju zɪlənd*
 zero Null *zɪ'ro*
 Zeus Zeus *zjʊs*
 zinc Zink *zɪŋk*
 zone Zone *zəʊn*
 Zoo = Zoological Gardens Zoo-
 logischer Garten *zəʊ, zəʊlə'dʒɪkəl*
 zoology Tierkunde *zəʊlə'dʒi*

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